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The
New Human Interest Library

Volume VI

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Let us then be up and doing,
With a heart for any fate;
Still achieving, still pursuing,
Learn to labor and to wait.

—Henry Wadsworth Longfellow

The

New Human Interest Library

VOLUME VI

Leaders of All Times

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Leading Writers—Foreign
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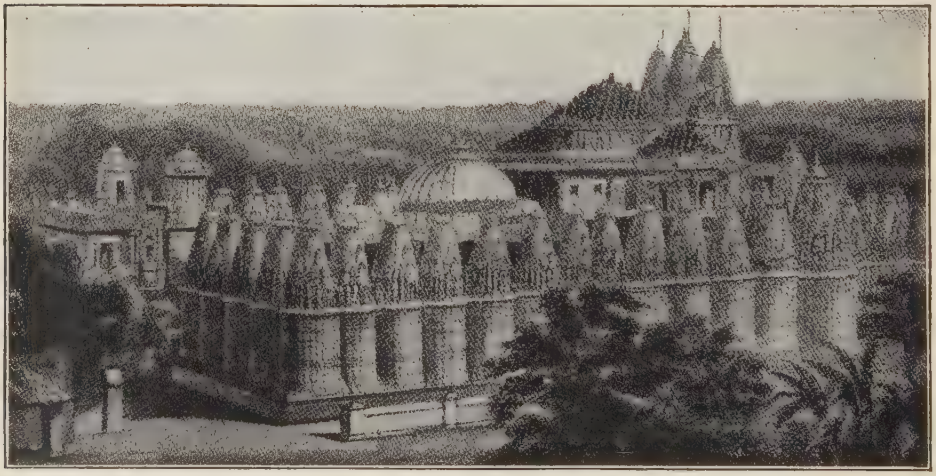
TEMPLE OF HEAVEN

This edifice in Peking is held most sacred by the followers of Confucius.



JAIN TEMPLE

This temple at Ahmadabad is an example of Jain architecture. Jain means "victorious" and refers to the victory over self.

CONFUCIUS

ZOROASTER

BUDDHA

MOHAMMED

LAO TSE

FOUNDERS OF RELIGIONS

MAN in all ages has been puzzled to know why he exists, and how this earth came into being. Directly he began to think, he found himself surrounded by mystery. He looked around him, and saw the beauty of the fields, the majesty of the hills, the wonder of great waters; he looked upward, and fixed his gaze upon the uncountable stars; he turned his gaze inward, and saw, as it were in a mirror, himself, his own thought, his reflection of "I am I." What did it all mean? Whence? For what purpose? Whither?

Among those who wondered there were some who meditated and reflected. Their meditations led them to believe certain things. They spoke of these beliefs. If their beliefs satisfied the ideas of men, they became teachers. They spent their lives in teaching, and at their death others continued to deliver the message.

Who these earliest teachers were and what they taught we shall never know accurately. The earliest religious guesses of the human race are lost in the silence of the past. It is quite late in the history of humanity that we come upon religious teachers whom we can name, and whose teachings are more or less clear to us. But these men, it must be carefully remembered, had inherited a teaching which goes back to the remote ages of the human race. Two of the teachers whom we meet in the past were natives of India, Gautama, the founder of Buddhism, and Vardhamana, the founder of what is called Jainism. In India, philosophy, which means search after truth, deeply occupied men's minds. Life was easy there; people had much time to sit down and think; and some gave themselves up entirely to guessing at the riddle of man's existence. India may be called the cradle of religion—certainly the cradle of dreamy guesses.

Some five hundred years before the birth of Christ, the two men of whom we have spoken were born in India. The religion of that time was Brahmanism, to a large extent identical with the history of Hindu civilization. But Brahmanism did not satisfy either Gautama or Vardhamana.

Gautama was the son of an influential man, some say a rajah, or king. He was brought up in a palace, and the world was kept hidden from him until he was married. While he lived in the palace, Brahmanism satisfied him. Alas! his first excursion into the world shattered his beliefs. He saw a broken-down old man, then a sick person, and at last a corpse. These things seemed terrible to his soul. He felt that life was a horror. He sought

to escape from it. Leaving his wife, his new-born babe, his father, his friends, his wealth, and his palace, Gautama went out into the wilderness, alone and penniless and homeless, to think about life.

He came to the conclusion that all solid and material things are useless and quite unworthy of men's affections, because they have the germ of death in them and will pass away. Nothing is worth while. Everything dies. He came to the conclusion that man is born on this earth not once, but many times, and, because each time his spirit is filled with foolish and vain desires, the great object of life should be to destroy all desire. When once a man wishes for nothing, absolutely nothing, when his spirit is filled with nothing but a complete willingness to perish, then at death he passes out of the world forever, enters something called Nirvana, which no European can understand, and is blessed forever by being forever non-existent. He ceases to be. Gautama preached this doctrine and called himself the Buddha, which means the Enlightened One.

It is the most curious religion in the world, if it can be called a religion at all, this Buddhism of Gautama. At one moment you feel how beautiful it is; at the next you are inclined to laugh at its foolishness and uselessness.

THE WOMAN WHO CAME TO BUDDHA AND LEARNED THE SADNESS OF LIFE

Here is a typical story of the Buddha. A poor woman came to him one day with a dead child in her arms. She was wild with grief, and implored the Buddha to give her medicine which would heal her child. Whatever herbs he needed for this medicine she would bring him, even if she had to go to the ends of the earth. He told her to bring a little common mustard seed, adding that it must be brought from some house in which no son, or husband, or parent, or slave had died. The woman went away eagerly to fetch the simple mustard seed.

"Here is mustard seed," everyone said to her. But when she asked if any had died in that house, the answer was:

"Lady, the living are few, but the dead are many."

For a long time she journeyed, and then, seeing the truth of things, namely that death is common to the race, she left her dead baby, and returned.

"Have you the seed?" asked Buddha.

"My lord," she answered, "the people tell me that the living are few, but that the dead are many."

Then the Buddha taught her the great sadness of life, and filled her with the desire no longer to exist. As a matter of fact, the whole teaching of Buddhism in regard to human life is the direct opposite of Christianity.

THE BUDDHIST WHO SEEKS NOTHING, AND THE CHRISTIAN WHO SEEKS EVERYTHING

Buddhism, filled with the melancholy of despair, says: "Nothing is worth while." Christianity, filled with the vigor of hope, shouts: "Everything is worth while." The Buddhist is careless of life and indifferent to suffering. Buddha did not tell people to be good, did not bid them repent, issued no rules of conduct. His whole mission was summed up in this—disgust for existence, here or anywhere. If a man felt remorse for his sins, it showed that he wanted to do better. He must want nothing at all.

Buddhism spread among the peoples of India, and at the death of Buddha it spread still more. Its progress was checked, however, among the Western peoples, who believe in opposing themselves to Nature, and refuse to resign themselves to fate. It is a purely Eastern religion, lacking altogether a universal note.

Vardhamana did not like the Buddha's teaching, and taught a very different religion. Vardhamana, as we think, was a truer teacher than the Buddha, but unfortunately he did not possess the same genius, the same attractiveness, as the other. His converts were fewer.

In the midst of much unintelligible stuff about Nirvana, there is a kernel of solid virtue in Vardhamana's teaching. He taught that everything has a soul, the soul being the "life"—so that grass, trees, animals, have souls.

THE TEACHER OF HOPE WHO FOLLOWED THE TEACHER OF DESPAIR

It is the fate of this soul to journey from body to body for millions of years, and the only escape from the toil of existence lies in practicing four virtues—liberality, gentleness, piety, and repentance. One must be good in word, thought, and deed; kindness to animals is essential. So we see that Jainism is better than Buddhism, because it makes for action instead of for despair and resignation; but the goal appears to be the same—an escape from life. Christ, on the other hand, created in men a passionate desire for life; life, and ever more life; life which fulfills itself in adoration of God, who wishes all His children to be happy.

Nothing is known of Vardhamana, but the Jains still exist, and are very rich.

A GREAT CHINESE TEACHER AND THE CURIOUS LEGEND OF HIS BIRTH

Curiously enough, about a century before the existence of these two teachers in India, there lived two teachers at one and the same time in China. The one was Lao-tse, who founded what is called Taoism; and the other Confucius, the founder of Chinese philosophy.

The meaning of the title Lao-tse is nothing more or less than "Old Boy," and legend has it that he was born in a miraculous way, being no less than eighty years old at the time of his birth, his head being covered with white hair, and a venerable beard descending from his chin. But a more appropriate translation of "Lao-tse" is to make it "the Venerable Philosopher"; and of course the story of his birth is simply a legend.

He was born in a hamlet, and became librarian to the king. In the royal library he pondered over the mysteries of life, and after many years he came to a conclusion, which was that the great thing, the supreme virtue, was humility. Desiring to hide himself, he left the palace and set out for the wilderness. As he was passing through the gate, the warden, who knew him for a holy man, said:

"You are about to withdraw yourself from the world. I pray you write me a book before you go."

Lao-tse thereupon sat down and wrote a book about half the size of St. Mark's Gospel. He gave this to the warden, passed through the gate, and no man knows where he died.

HOW LAO-TSE WROTE A GOSPEL AND TAUGHT MEN NOT TO BE ANXIOUS

The little book is the gospel of Taoism. From those few pages grew up an immense religion. If Lao-tse could stand in that gate now, he would be amazed to see the effect of his farewell to the warden. Let us see how much we can understand of Taoism.

The word "Tao" is the despair of translators. It means "the way," but it means "the wayfarer" as well. It is man and his destiny; God and humanity. We cannot say exactly what a Chinaman understands by it. Lao-tse's advice is that we should think and act without reflection. We should become like young children. The grass grows without taking

thought; man should live with a similar freedom from anxiety. Everything should be spontaneous, everything done on the impulse. But he carries this advice almost to the point of anarchy. "It is the way of Tao," he says, "not to act from any personal motive, to conduct affairs without feeling the trouble of them, to eat without being aware of the flavor, to account the great as small and the small as great, to recompense injury with kindness."

He hated war; he did not like to see men put to death. He felt no interest in art, culture, and refinement. Life should be without effort. There could be no beauty where there was strain. The pilgrim of existence should never be in haste about anything, never be anxious.

The Boy Who Played at Preaching and Became the Sage of China

We see that, unlike the two teachers of India, this old philosopher wanted people to be happy; but we cannot help feeling that here also is that despairing "fatalism," or the belief that everything is pre-arranged to happen, whatever man may do, which is the ruling idea of the East as distinct from the West.

A very different man is Confucius, the great sage of China. Confucius and Lao-tse once had a conversation together. Lao-tse did not think much of Confucius. Confucius was struck by Lao-tse. Now, which should we say was the greater man? It was Confucius. It requires genius of the highest order to appreciate those with whom we do not agree. Confucius was born of an ancient and honorable family; but he was poor. In order to earn his living, he studied hard in childhood. He was fond of music, and played on the lute, singing to it. His favorite game with other children was what we should call "playing at being a clergyman." He liked to dress himself up, to strike attitudes, and to conduct religious sacrifices. He was married at nineteen, and became a keeper of stores, and afterwards the controller of parks and herds.

He was twenty-two when he set up as a teacher, and it is said of him that he never refused a scholar who was too poor to pay his fees. But he used to say that when he had explained one corner of any subject, if the pupil could not understand the other three corners for himself, he gave up teaching that lesson.

His fame spread as a teacher, and he became a minister to one of the rulers. So great was his success that he became "the idol of the people, and flew in songs through their mouths." He put down injustice, and banished crime. He was just, honest, fearless, and good. But the ruler began to grow jealous of his power, and Confucius had to go.

The rest of his life is a pathetic tale of homeless wanderings. Accompanied by his disciples, he journeyed from state to state, seeking some ruler wise enough to accept him as teacher and minister. He told his disciples that the greatest reform was to make people understand the meanings of such names as "ruler," "father," "son." If those words were properly understood, unhappiness and misery would vanish from the earth.

How the Teacher of China Sought a Kingdom but Found None

On these wanderings he frequently encountered hermits—men who had retired from the world in disgust. These hermits could not understand how Confucius could be so stupid as to live in a wicked world trying to alter what was unalterable. Confucius said it was impossible to withdraw from men and live with beasts and birds who

did not understand man. "With whom should I associate," he asked finely, "but with suffering man?" So he walked on and on, teaching his disciples, comforting the poor, and seeking for a kingdom to rule.

He found no kingdom. But his teachings have lived from the day of those sad wanderings down to our own time, and Confucius now reigns as no other emperor can reign in the hearts of millions and millions of the human race.

One of his sayings shows the great difference between him and Lao-tse: "The cautious seldom err." But his whole gospel was more generous than that; he taught the golden rule that we should live exactly as we would have others live: "What you do not like when done to yourself, do not to others." His whole teaching shows that we should do good to others, whether there is need for us to do so, or not. But he said nothing chivalrous or noble about women, and he gave no attention to a life after death. "While you do not know life," he said, "what can you know about death?" All his ideas of goodness concerned man's life on this earth, and it is wonderful that a teacher who left wholly out of account life after death should have had, and still does have, such immense influence over men.

THE PROPHET OF PERSIA WHO LAUGHED THE DAY HE WAS BORN

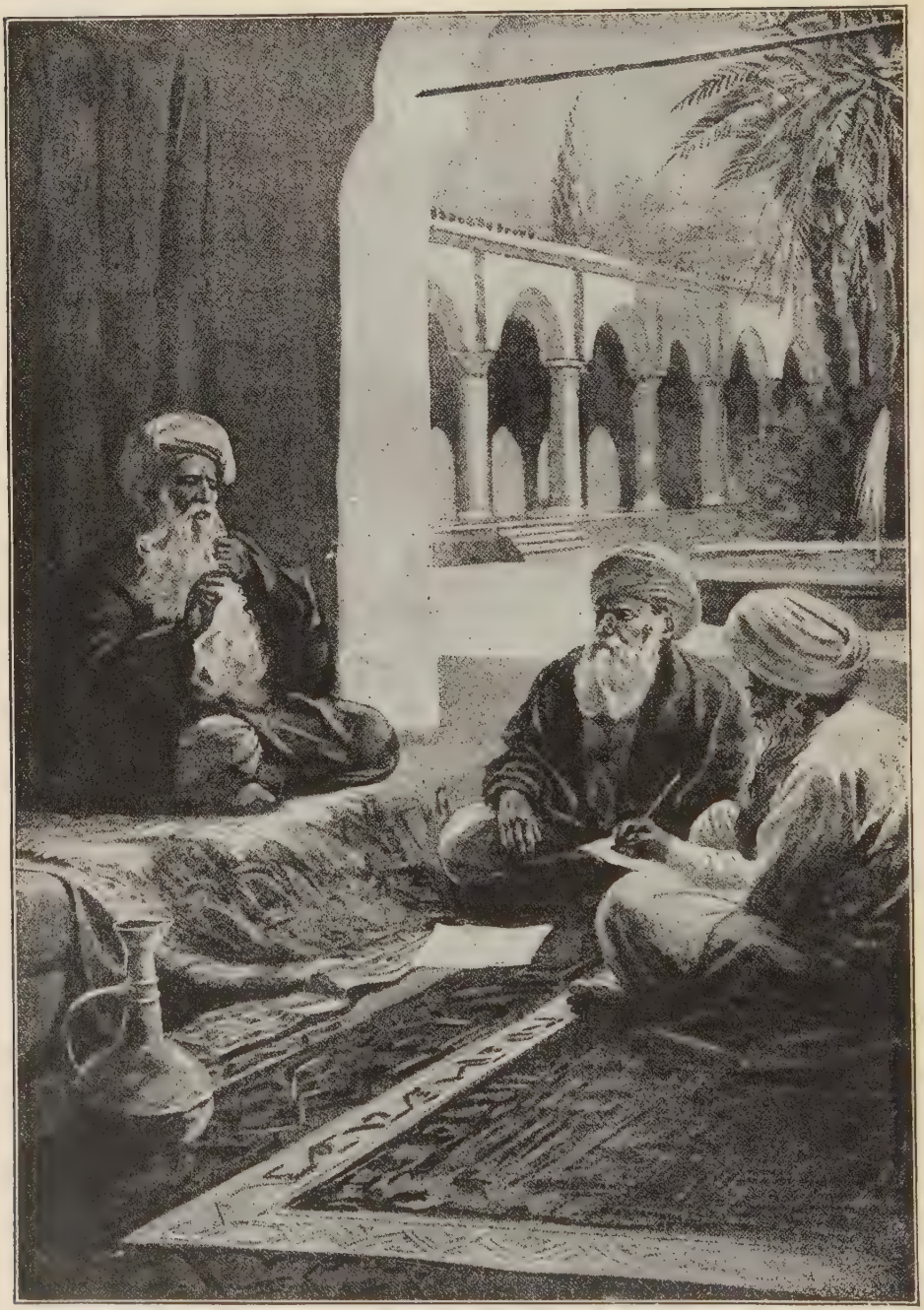
Further back in time than any of these men is the founder of Zoroastrianism, the ancient religion of Persia. Some say he lived before the battle of Troy, others that he was Ezekiel, others that he was Ham, Moses, or Abraham. There is no end to the theories about Zoroaster. The legends about him are also legion. It is said that he began to laugh the day he was born; that the palpitation of his brain was so vigorous that it repelled any hand that might be put upon his head; that he dwelt twenty years in the wilderness and lived upon a single cheese which never grew stale. It is also said that as he came down from meditating in a mountain, fire burst out from heaven which did not consume him; that he desired to be killed by a thunderbolt, and that in this manner he did die, after having taught the Persians all there is to know about this world and the next.

We need not trouble our heads about this enormous nonsense, which always grows up about the original men of antiquity. We may be certain that a man named Zoroaster did live, that he taught the Magi, or Wise Men, of Persia, and that his character was sufficiently unusual to make him revered and honored and obeyed by his disciples.

THE GOOD GOD OF THE LIGHT AND THE EVIL GOD OF THE DARKNESS

Zoroaster divided everything into good and evil. There was a good god and an evil god. Some of the animals, birds, fishes, and plants are made by the good god, and some by the evil. He taught that sacrifices should be made to the good god in order to win from him all manner of good things; and to the evil god also, that he might guard the offerers from dangerous and hurtful and unpleasant things. Light belongs to the good god, and darkness to the bad. The name of the good god is Ormuzd, and the evil, Ahriman. Life after death will be either good or evil, and the whole of our eternal life is determined by our existence here. The soul after death passes over the Accountant's Bridge; its deeds are examined in the book where everything is written; if there are more good than evil deeds, it goes straight to bliss; if the other, it goes straight to pain; and if the balance is equal,

MOHAMMED DICTATING THE SACRED KORAN



Every Mohammedan has the greatest reverence for the sacred scriptures of his religion, called the Koran, a word that means "book," just as our word Bible does. Mohammed pretended that the chapters of the Koran were brought to him from heaven by the angel Gabriel, and to confirm this, pointed to the fact that he himself could neither read nor write. But the general opinion of scholars is that he dictated the Koran.

it waits in a land of shadow for the final decision of the Great Judge.

You will see that there are many ideas and considerable beauty mixed up in this kind of religion, which is interesting as showing us what men have accomplished in striving to solve the great riddle of existence.

THE ORPHAN BOY WHO BECAME A PROPHET TO MILLIONS OF MEN

And now, last of all, we come to the most recent of religious founders, Mohammed, who is the prophet to millions of the human race, and has sometimes, very ignorantly, been compared with Christ. The truth is that Mohammed probably knew the teachings of Christ. Mohammedanism, some people have said, was Mohammed's effort to rescue the teaching of Jesus from the confusion into which it had been brought by the Christian Church.

Mohammed was born of poor parents at Mecca towards the end of the sixth century. Left early an orphan, he was brought up by an uncle. He was a good boy. At a marriageable age he was sent to act as master of the camels of an elderly woman who traded in Syria. This woman fell in love with her young servant and married him. At forty years of age he was the father of a family, with married daughters. Later he had many wives, and is said to have excused himself for beating one by saying that he flogged her as a woman, not as his wife. Some authors say that he was subject to epileptic fits, and that he pretended that he fell into convulsions because he could not support the glorious sight of the angel Gabriel, who came from God to inform him of things concerning religion.

THE FLIGHT OF MOHAMMED WHO TAUGHT THE RELIGION OF THE SWORD

In any case, he certainly had swoons; and he certainly, on account of his visions, became a feared and honored person.

The magistrates of Mecca, fearing an insurrection, determined to put a stop to his ravings, whereupon Mohammed made his famous flight from Mecca to Medina. Here he determined to assert his religion by the sword, and, gathering an army about him, went to and fro, attacking cities and caravans on the road, until at last, after some years, Mecca itself fell into his hands.

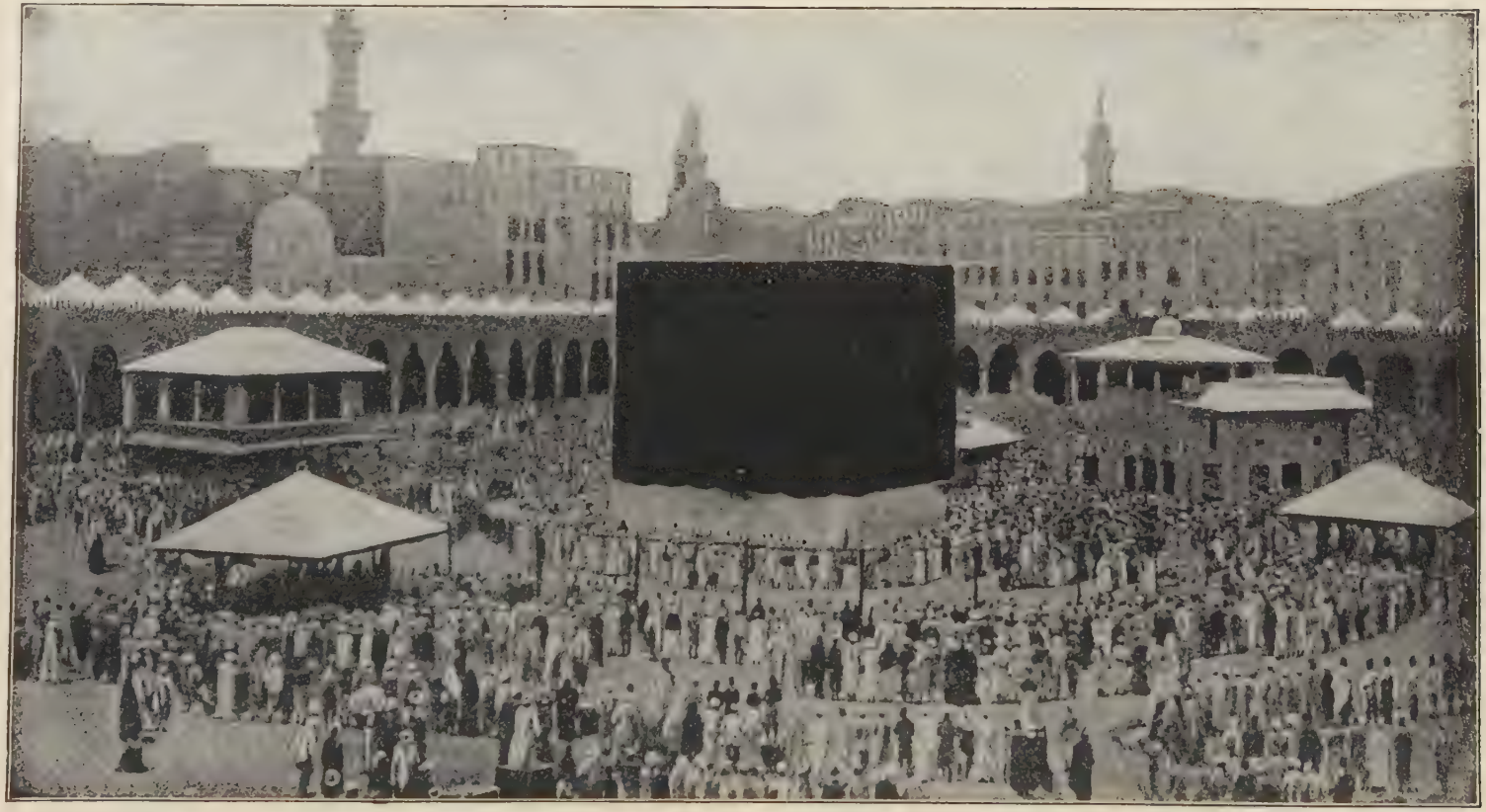
It is certain that Mohammed's followers became enthusiastic in devotion to one God, Allah. It is certain that much of Mohammed's teaching is borrowed from the law of Moses. It is almost probable that his ideas were influenced by the primitive teachings of Christianity. He rejected the Church; but he seems, in his own fashion, to have accepted Jesus. But his ideas altogether lack the exquisite clearness and the transparent purity of the Light of the World.

THE KORAN THAT RULES NATIONS AND PREVENTS THEIR PROGRESS

The Koran, the scriptures of Mohammedanism, is a wonderful book. Mohammed is supposed to have been inspired to dictate it, or to get it written, by the angel Gabriel. In it there are fables the most monstrous and horrible; but in it, too, there are occasional aspirations towards immortality, and expressions of repentance, which are finely expressed.

With all its faults, the Koran rules millions of the human race; but it prevents progress. On the whole, it is a book neither very profitable nor very pleasant for any but students of religions. And yet it is this book which Mohammedan children must use as almost their only school-book. Mohammedanism, youngest of all religions, is perhaps the one most distasteful to European knowledge.

MECCA, BIRTHPLACE OF MOHAMMED, AND HOLY CITY OF MOHAMMEDANISM



Mecca was a sacred place of pilgrimage long before Mohammed was born there, but now every Moslem must turn towards Mecca when he prays; and must visit it at least once in his life. In the grounds of a great mosque stands the holy kaaba, shown in this picture, a small temple which every year receives new hangings of rich material from the Sultan of Turkey. No pilgrim visits Mecca without walking round the kaaba seven times and kissing a sacred black stone built into its wall, which Abraham is said to have received from Paradise.

GREAT MEN OF GREECE

There were three peoples in ancient times who did much to shape the history of the nations that lived after them. They were the Hebrews, the Romans, and the Greeks. Indeed, some people declare that if anyone says or thinks of anything very wise or very beautiful, we shall find that there was some Greek who said or thought of the very same thing more than 2000 years ago. Moreover, it is remarkable that nearly all of the greatest of the Greeks belonged to one city, Athens. Men about whom we read here include some very great statesmen, one of the greatest of all soldiers and also three of the wisest men who ever lived.

WE will begin with Solon, the Athenian. For it was he who set the State of Athens in order, so that after his time it was difficult for the rich people, or people proud of their high birth, to oppress those who were poor and humbly born. When he was a young man he traveled much; and, returning to Athens, he soon won fame by persuading his countrymen not to submit to their enemies, and by leading them successfully in battle. Then, when there was great discontent and trouble between the rich and the poor, both asked Solon to make new laws which would be fair to both, and he made them promise that they would not change his laws for ten years without his leave. And when he had made the new laws he went away, knowing that if he stayed many would ask him to change the laws again; but that after ten years they would have learned that the laws were good, and would not wish to change them.

The story is told how he showed his wisdom when he came in his travels to the Court of Crœsus, the King of Lydia, who was one of the mightiest kings, and the richest in the world. Crœsus, having shown Solon his great riches, asked him who he thought was the happiest of men, counting that he would answer, "Crœsus, the King." But Solon said, "Tillus, the Athenian; for he lived honorably, and begat noble sons and fair daughters; and at the last he fell in battle gloriously, having given victory to his country." Then, Crœsus asking, "And the next?" Solon made answer, "Cleobis and Biton, whose mother prayed the gods to grant the best of all gifts to her sons for the utter love and tenderness they had shown to her; and on the morrow the twain were found dead. For he is happiest who dies most happily; and no man may be counted happy until he is dead." But of Solon's own dying we know only that he was full of years and honor.

But we may be assured that he would have accounted happy Leonidas, the Spartan, who comes into our talk for one most glorious deed. For when the King of Persia made war upon the Greeks and marched against them, as men say, with the greatest army that ever was seen, he must make his way into Greece through a mountain pass which is called Thermopylæ. And here, because the way is so narrow that but four men could march into it together, the Greeks could have held him at bay with an advance guard of but a few thousand men, till all their forces should be gathered; and at the head of these was set the Spartan king, Leonidas.

But when it was found, after the Greeks had already beaten back an attack, that there was another way, so that a Persian host might pass behind them and attack in great numbers, then Leonidas sent back most of his army, seeing that those who abode at Thermopylæ must be overwhelmed.

How Leonidas and his Heroes Drove Back the Persians at Thermopylæ

But he, with three hundred men of Sparta and seven hundred from Thespiæ, resolved that they would remain and die at their post. And when one said that if they went out to battle against the Persians the very sun would be hidden from them by the flights of the Persian arrows, answer was made, "The better, for so we shall fight in the shade."

Then Leonidas would wait no longer behind the ramparts that had been built; but he and his men, having made ready as if they were going to some festival, marched out in battle array and charged across the open upon the myriads of the Persians, and slew many thousands of them before the last of their own number had fallen. So that the fame of Leonidas and his three hundred Spartans and the seven hundred Thespians has rung across the ages, like a trumpet-call, to deeds of valor from that day until now.

Yet it was not Leonidas, the Spartan who overthrew the Persians, but Themistocles, the Athenian; for the numbers that Leonidas had slain at Thermopylæ were but a tiny part of the Persian king's army which set forth against the Greeks. Now, they would have had a hard task to fight their way across the narrow isthmus of Corinth into the south of Greece, but Athens lay an easy prey for them.

Themistocles Makes Athens Strong by Sea and Wins a Great Battle

This very clever Athenian, Themistocles, however, had seen that his city might become very powerful if she had a great fleet; and by his counsel the Athenians had built many ships, and had become the most skilful sailors of all the Greeks. And now the men of Athens went to their ships, having set their women and children on an island hard by; and it was now the counsel of Themistocles that they should do battle with the Persians by sea; for if they beat them on the sea, then the Persians, being so far from their own country, would find themselves in danger by land also. The Greeks of the south, which is called Peloponnesus, thinking their own land secure, were not eager to fight by sea, but Themistocles was so sure of winning, that when some of the Greeks talked of sailing away, he sent a message to the Persians bidding them send ships and block up the way of escape, pretending that he had goodwill toward them. So when the other Greeks found there was no other way, they made ready for a sea fight.

Then was fought the battle of Salamis, which was won chiefly by the skill and valor of the Athenian fleet, led by Themistocles. And the battle of Salamis really decided the war, though afterwards there was another great battle by land, in which also the Greeks were victorious. But in later days Themistocles quarreled with the Athenians, and betook himself to the King of Persia, making pretense of friendliness; and he died in Persia, having taken poison, men said, to kill himself.

Athens Becomes Powerful and Beautiful under the Rule of Pericles

After Themistocles had gone from Athens, the guidance of the affairs of the city came, before very long, into the hands of a great statesman named Pericles. Now he, like Themistocles, saw that the greatness and the power of Athens depended on the strength of her fleet; and he made it his aim to set Athens at the head of the sea-going states, so that all should be, not exactly her subjects, but united in a league of which she was the acknowledged chief.

Under his guidance Athens increased not in power only, but in wealth and beauty and knowledge. For the great-

est of sculptors, Phidias, and great poets such as Sophocles lived at Athens, and it became the most beautiful city in the world; and the wisest of the men and women of the time were the friends of Pericles. There are many people who think that of all Greek statesmen he was the greatest, and certainly there was none who did more for the good of his own city of Athens. And yet not Pericles nor any other thought of trying to unite the Greeks into one great nation, which could act in harmony; but all the cities remained separate, so that there were endless strifes and rivalries between city and city.

Of all these rivalries the greatest was between Athens and Sparta. For Sparta thought to set herself over all the Greeks; but Athens, with Pericles guiding her, would not suffer Sparta to rule after this fashion, and gave aid to other cities which would not obey the Spartans, and there was war, so that in the hour of the death of Pericles, and for some while after, it seemed as though Athens might become the leader of all the Greeks. But after him there was none who could see so clearly and rule so wisely as he; and Athens was worsted, through striving to make a wider empire than she was fit for.

Thus the Spartans won the chief power, so that nearly all the states of Greece had to bow to their will, though they were not altogether subject to her. And then it was not Athens, but a neighbor state called Thebes, which set Sparta at defiance, and for a short time became the most powerful of the Greek states.

THE TWO FRIENDS WHO SAVED GREECE FROM THE TYRANNY OF SPARTA

This was due mainly to two men —Pelopidas and Epaminondas—who were very dear friends; but most of all to Epaminondas. Pelopidas was a man of great wealth, very generous, a very daring soldier, and well beloved. But Epaminondas was poor.

Yet, of the two, Epaminondas did more; for, in the first place, he did not care about his own greatness at all; and, in the second place, he did not seek to make Thebes great only for the sake of Thebes, but that his city might deserve well of all the Greeks. And he trained himself in body and mind, so that there was nothing he could not do well, whether to persuade men by speech, or to fight valiantly himself, or to train an army and lead it in war. And when the Thebans chose him, with his friend Pelopidas, to lead them, he gave defiance to Sparta, whose soldiers were thought to be invincible, and by his skill as a general he overthrew them at the battle of Leuctra, though their numbers were the greater. And the Thebans won freedom for other states from the tyranny of Sparta. But at last, when Epaminondas was warring against Sparta, there was a great battle at Martinea, and the Spartans were routed. In the hour of victory Epaminondas received a mortal wound, and, in their grief at the loss of their loved chief, his men had no care to pursue the foe; nor was any left after him to carry on his work as a statesman or even as a soldier, so that the strifes and rivalries of the Greek states continued.

THE COMING OF KING PHILIP OF MACEDON AND HOW HE TRIED TO RULE GREECE

While the Greek states continued to waste themselves in their rivalries, there was being built up northward, in Macedon, a powerful kingdom, which was Greek, too, although it had been less civilized than the rest of Greece. The building up of the power of Macedon was for the most part the work of the crafty King Philip, and soon men began to see that

Philip meant to make Macedon the head of all the Greek peoples. Moreover, to some it seemed that Philip would not be content with that, but intended really to make himself master of the whole land. Therefore the great orator Demosthenes tried hard to make the people of Athens oppose the plans of Philip.

Now, this Demosthenes was one of the most wonderful orators in the world, so that to this day people study his speeches in order to learn how to speak so as to persuade multitudes of people. It is said that he made himself so good a speaker that he could speak quite distinctly with pebbles in his mouth, and could recite poetry aloud though he was running uphill; and he studied very hard so as to learn the best possible way of expressing whatever he wished to say.

How Demosthenes the Orator was Driven into Exile to Die

Now Demosthenes could not make the Athenians strong enough to resist Philip; still, he spent the best part of his life in trying to encourage the Athenians and to persuade other Greek states to help them. The speeches which he made against Philip are called the "Philippic Orations," and so when other people make speeches of the same kind they are called "Philippics." After Philip was dead, and when his son Alexander the Great was in Asia, the Regent of Macedon caused Demosthenes to be sent away from Athens; but afterwards the Athenians revolted and Demosthenes came back.

The Macedonians had him driven out again, but when his enemies went in pursuit of him he knew that he would be put to death, and so he chose rather to die by taking poison himself.

During the last twelve years of the life of Demosthenes, Alexander the Great, the son of Philip of Macedon, made himself one of the most famous conquerors of all time, though he was only thirty-three years old when he died. For he had already learned warlike skill from Philip; and Philip, when he had made Macedon the chief of the Greek states, had already planned that the Greeks should send an army to make war on the great kingdom or empire of Persia, although the Persian king's dominions reached all the way from the borders of India to the Mediterranean Sea, and even Egypt belonged to him; and the Greeks could only send a very small army against his great one.

Still, when Alexander was only twenty-three, he led his army into Asia Minor, which was the western part of the dominions of King Darius of Persia, and there he routed the Persians at the battle of the Granicus. Then Darius met him with another great army at Issus, and was routed again. After that, Alexander decided first to conquer the western lands completely, and he overthrew the cities of Phœnicia, which is just on the north of the Holy Land, and then Egypt made submission. Then he marched again against Darius, and overthrew him utterly at Arbela; and soon after that Darius was murdered.

Death Conquers the Conqueror and his Soldiers Break up his Empire

But when Alexander had conquered the whole Persian Empire he was still not satisfied, but marched on into India, and there he overthrew a brave Indian king who was called Porus; so that no king in the world before Alexander had ever been the lord of so vast an empire. All this Alexander did in ten years. But he had no chance of doing more, for very soon after he died of a fever, and the generals of his army divided the great empire up among themselves.

LAST HOURS OF TWO FAMOUS GREEKS

Alexander the Great was the man of action and energy. During ten years he led a mighty army and conquered Persia, Egypt, and Phœnicia, and even marched on to India, where he defeated a brave king named Porus. No king had ever before ruled over so vast an empire as Alexander, who is said to have sighed for other worlds to conquer. When only thirty-three years old, however, he died of fever, and his empire fell to pieces.

THE DEATH OF SOCRATES THE GREEK PHILOSOPHER, SURROUNDED BY HIS SORROWING DISCIPLES

Between the time of Pericles and the time of Alexander there lived three of the very wisest among all men. The first was Socrates, who was born just at the time when Pericles was becoming well known in Athens; and the next was Plato; and the third was Aristotle. They were all philosophers, which means, in the first place, lovers of wisdom; and that is a name given to people who care more about knowing what is true and good than about worldly success, and try to help other people how to think, which is a very much more difficult thing than some people suppose.

Plato and Socrates, the Leaders of the Wise Men of Athens

Now both Plato and Aristotle wrote a great many books; but Socrates wrote no books at all. However we know a good deal about him; because, for one thing, a man named Xenophon, who admired him very much, wrote a book about him; and, for another thing, there was a great dramatist at Athens who used to laugh at him, and bring him into his plays for other people to laugh at; and besides that, Plato has shown us still more clearly what kind of man he was; for Plato wrote a great many of his books in the form of "dialogues," or conversations, in which Socrates is supposed to be talking to other people.

And though we may be pretty sure that, when Plato wanted to teach people something, he often pretended that it was Socrates from whom he had learned it, though he had really thought of it himself, still, we know from that the kind of way in which Socrates must have been in the habit of talking, and that he was not only wise and good, but witty as well, and that his friends loved him deeply.

It was a curious thing that the Greeks, who were usually good looking, found it difficult to believe that anyone could be both wise and ugly; but Socrates was very ugly. Still, he was strong and sturdy, and when he had to go to fight in the Athenian armies he was a good soldier. But there was one very odd thing about him, which was that now and then he would suddenly fall into a trance, and stop quite still, unconscious of anything that was going on about him; and then the trance would come to an end, and he would go on just as if nothing had happened.

Now Socrates thought that the most important thing in the world to get is knowledge, and the most important kind of knowledge is to know yourself, because the better you know yourself, the more you see how little you really know, and how much of what you think you know may be quite wrong.

How Socrates was Condemned to Die for Making People Think

And by always asking people why they thought this or that, he set them thinking and trying to see the reason of things. But people who had no good reason for what they thought got annoyed, and when they found young men beginning to say that things were wrong which they had been in the habit of calling right, they said that Socrates was corrupting the young Athenians.

So Socrates was brought before the judges for misleading people—just as at the time of the Reformation people used to be tried and punished for teaching what was called heresy; and he was condemned to death, and was made to drink hemlock. But his friends were allowed to see him when he took the poison; and all the time he was dying he talked cheerfully to them, having no fear of death; and his talk was chiefly intended to help them to feel sure, as he was himself,

that we have souls which are immortal, and do not die when our bodies die.

Plato, the pupil of Socrates, and Aristotle, the pupil of Plato

Plato was one of the young men who were disciples of Socrates, and he went on teaching people afterwards what he had learned from Socrates, and a good deal more which he saw must be true if what he had learned from Socrates were true. The books that he wrote are very wise, but are written in such a delightful way that anyone who can understand them loves them though sometimes they are very difficult indeed to understand, because the things he tried to explain still puzzle very wise people.

After Plato came Aristotle, who was a pupil of Plato's, tutor to Alexander the Great. He too, wrote many books; but he did not look at things quite in the same way as Plato, and because people who love knowledge for its own sake are sometimes inclined to look at things in Plato's way and sometimes in Aristotle's way —but none can help doing it in the same sort of way as one or the other of them—it is sometimes said that all philosophers are either Platonists or Aristotelians, even though they may not think so themselves. For Plato thought in the way that poets think, and Aristotle thought in the way that men of science think.

It is a curious thing that Aristotle did so much to teach men how to set about finding out the way in which Nature works, that a time came—hundreds of years later—when people began to think it was really wicked to say that Aristotle could have ever made a mistake. And, on the other hand, many people have found that, though they were Christians, they understood their own religion all the better when they had studied the teachings of Plato, though he died more than three hundred years before Jesus was born.

The last of the men with the ancient spirit of Greece

After those days the Greek states seemed to lose their power of giving the world men of the greatest kind; they seemed to be depressed by the leadership of Macedon; and a long time afterwards they were swallowed up in the great Roman Empire. But there is one man who lived not very long before that happened whose name deserves to be remembered. This was Philopœmen, who was afterwards called "the last of the Greeks," which meant that he was the last of the men of importance who showed the old Greek spirit of fearless courage and high-minded patriotism. He tried to persuade the different cities of Greece that they ought to think of each other not as rivals, but as one nation.

Philopœmen was famous for daring and skilful leadership in time of war, and was honest and free from self-seeking. Once, when he arrived at an inn, the inn-keeper's wife thought that he was Philopœmen's servant, and set him to lay the table and wash the dishes, until her husband came in and recognized him. In the end he was thrown from his horse, taken prisoner, cast into a dungeon underground and poisoned; and in this way died "the last of the Greeks."

ROME IN THE AGE OF AUGUSTUS

CREATORS OF ROMAN GREATNESS

The city of Rome stood on the banks of the River Tiber, in Italy, hundreds of years before the first Christmas Day. As time passed, this "city of the seven hills" became the mistress of almost the whole of the world that was then known. After a time, Rome's lordship was taken away, and new empires arose; but Rome itself, when the influence of Christianity came into the world, won a new dominion over the minds of men, the head of the Christian Church in Rome being looked upon as the head of the Christian Church everywhere. Though that dominion, too, was shaken off by the countries which became Protestant, many Christians still in all nations look upon the Pope of Rome as their head. Rome still stands upon the banks of the Tiber, so that men call it "The Eternal City."

FIRST GREAT MEN OF ROME

THE Romans said that their city was founded by a king named Romulus, and that after him there reigned six more kings. Five of those six helped to make Rome great, either because they were skilful warriors, or because they made wise laws. But the seventh king was called Tarquin the Proud, because in all things he sought his own wealth and pleasure, trampling upon the people, instead of making it his aim to secure their welfare like the wise kings before him. And his sons were like him.

There was a young man among the nobles whose name was Lucius Junius; and he was also called Brutus, which means "blockhead." But, in truth, he was keen-witted, and only made a pretense of dullness. For he saw that Tarquin the Proud feared clever men, and sought to destroy them, lest they should become powerful and overthrow him. Yet, though Tarquin did not know it, there was no one in Rome whom he had more cause to fear than this Brutus.

There is a story that the king once sent two of his sons, and Brutus with them, to consult the Oracle of the temple at Delphi, which men believed could foretell the future. And when they had asked the questions as the king had told them, then the sons of Tarquin asked the Oracle: "Which of us shall rule in Rome hereafter?" And the Oracle answered: "He that shall first kiss his mother." As they left the temple, the stupid Brutus tripped and fell; but he had done this on purpose, so that he might kiss the earth, which is the mother of all men. The rule of Tarquin grew worse and worse; and nobles and people groaned under his tyranny, till their anger was ready to break out in fierce flame. And then a son of Tarquin, named Sextus, did wrong to Lucretia, the wife of one of the nobles—wrong so deep and bitter that when she had told her story to her husband, in the presence of her father and Brutus and another noble, named Publius Valerius, she slew herself with a dagger.

Thereupon Brutus dropped his pretense of stupidity; he snatched the dagger from her heart, and called on all present to pledge themselves to rid Rome of the tyrant Tarquin and his evil sons. Then they went out and told the people in Rome what had befallen; for Tarquin was away at the head of an army. Brutus made haste to the camp, and there he called upon the soldiers to rise up against Tarquin. And Tarquin and his sons had to fly to another city, nor could they ever win back their power in Rome. But the Romans made oath that they would never again have a king in Rome, and instead of a king they set two consuls at the head of the state. One of them was Brutus.

Brutus, who drove the tyrant from Rome and condemns his own sons

So the name of Brutus was ever held in high honor in Rome, as the man who had driven the tyrant forth from her gates and made her a free Commonwealth. Moreover, it is told of Brutus that he set to all men an example of stern justice, even when it must have almost broken his own heart. For it befell that his own sons were drawn into a plot to restore the Tarquins; and when Brutus learned the truth he did not use his power to spare his own flesh and blood, but spoke the doom of the traitors with his own lips. Reckoning his duty to his country more highly than his love for his family, he condemned his sons to death.

For many a long year the Romans had constant wars with one or another of the neighboring cities, and many troubles within between the nobles, who were called Patricians, and the commons, who were called Plebeians. For the nobles held the rule and were often oppressors. And slowly the commons gained more and more share in the government. A time came when the power of Rome was in danger from the victory of the city of Veii. The Romans sent out armies and besieged Veii, but could not take it until they placed their forces under the command of a noble named Marcus Furius Camillus.

Camillus, who won great fights and bade the children flog a traitor

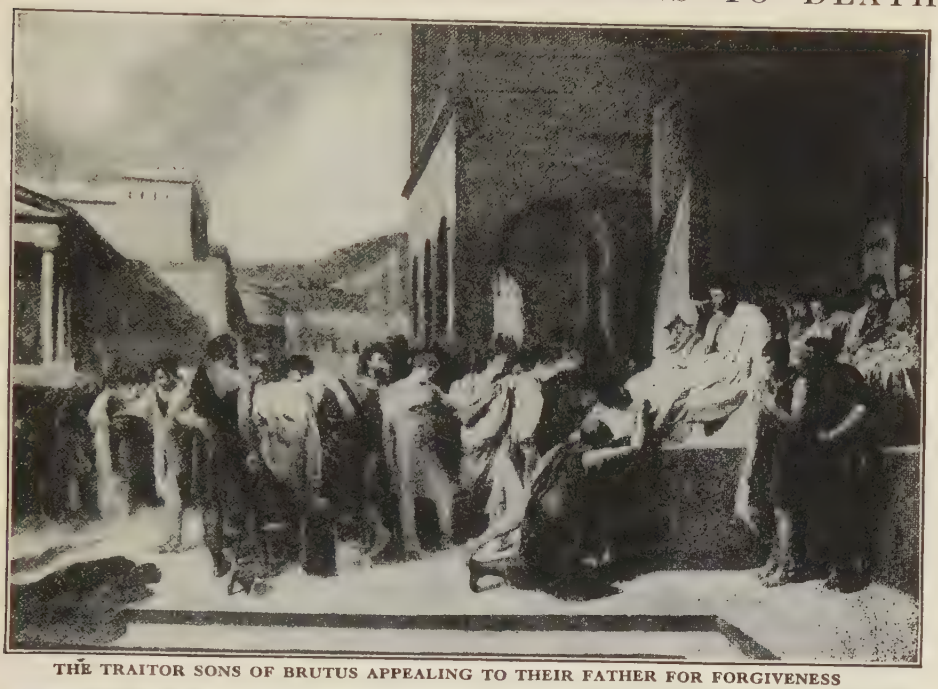
Now Camillus found that he could make a hidden passage underground, called a mine; and, unknown to the people of Veii, he made a mine under the wall of Veii, and dug it so that his soldiers could burst their way out into the temple of Juno. Then he ordered a great attack to be made on the walls, so that all the people of Veii gathered to defend them. Then, when the whole of the city was defending the walls, Camillus himself led a troop into the mine, and they broke out and opened the gates of the city, so that its people were utterly conquered.

It is told of Camillus that in one of the wars, when he was besieging another town, he won honor for the Romans by a generous action. For there was a schoolmaster who thought to win favor with the Romans, and by a trick managed to take the school children out of the town and bring them to the Roman camp, so that the people of the town would agree to anything to get the children back. But Camillus bound the traitor's hands, and bade the children flog him back to the city. Some say that afterwards, when the Gauls sacked Rome, Camillus, who was in exile, returned and defeated them. Some say that his last public act was to persuade the leaders of the nobles and commons to agree together and be at peace. But, at any rate, his memory was honored as of one who, all his life, did good service to his country.

Regulus, who gave up his life for the sake of Rome

The next famous man of whom we have to tell won no great victories for Rome. For he was in command of the Roman army when it was warring against the city of Carthage, in Africa; and the men of Carthage defeated the Romans and took many prisoners. Among the prisoners was the general Regulus. The victors held Regulus captive; but when some Carthaginian nobles were captured in another battle with the Romans they sent messengers to Rome, and Regulus with them, offering to set Regulus and other prisoners free if their own men were set free. But Regulus, instead of begging the Romans to agree, so that he might come home again, told them that it

BRUTUS CONDEMNING HIS SONS TO DEATH



THE TRAITOR SONS OF BRUTUS APPEALING TO THEIR FATHER FOR FORGIVENESS

THE GRIEF IN THE HOME OF BRUTUS WHEN THE BODIES WERE BROUGHT IN

In the early days of Rome, when Tarquin the Proud was king, the king and his sons were so cruel that the people groaned under them, and a young nobleman named Brutus called upon the people to drive the Tarquins out of Rome. They were driven out, and afterwards some false Romans plotted to bring them back. Among the traitors were Brutus's own sons; and it was then that Brutus set to all men an example of stern justice. He condemned the traitors to death, though they were his own sons.

would be wiser to refuse, since they had less need of him than the Carthaginians had of their men. So it was that Regulus returned to captivity in Carthage, rather than let Rome suffer even a little for his sake. And for this he deserved the higher honor, because he knew that the Carthaginians would be wroth with him, and put him to a painful death.

In that war the Romans defeated the Carthaginians in the end, but the power of Carthage was not destroyed; and some of her people went to Spain and there made a new power, drawing the peoples of Spain under their rule or into company with them. They built a city which they called New Carthage, and they did this because they thought that, possessing Spain, they would again be able to make war successfully against the Romans.

SCIPIO, THE YOUNG HERO WHO WON SPAIN AND AFRICA FOR ROME

It was in one of those battles with Carthage that Cornelius Scipio first fought, being then but a boy. They say that Scipio saved his own father's life. After that his father was sent to Spain, to fight the Carthaginians who were there, and was killed. Then none of the Roman generals were willing to go to Spain, knowing how hard a task was before them; but Scipio, though yet very young, offered to undertake it. For he felt sure in his heart that he could conquer Spain for Rome.

Moreover, the people were so moved by his noble bearing and his persuasive speech, and by the courage he had shown, that they gave him the command. When Scipio was come to Spain the soldiers took heart; for they had loved his father, and now they followed the son with fearless devotion.

First of all, they captured the enemy's city of New Carthage, and then defeated them in other battles, until their power in Spain was broken altogether. Then he returned to Rome, and persuaded the Romans to send him with an army across the sea against Carthage itself.

The power of Carthage was laid low, and Scipio was called Africanus, because he conquered the land of Africa. At last there came a time when he saw that some men envied him, and others distrusted him for the tales that were told of him by his enemies, and then he ceased to take part in public affairs, scorning to defend himself against charges of baseness. So Scipio passed the end of his days as a private citizen.

CATO THE CENSOR, WHO WAS FAMOUS FOR THE ROMAN VIRTUES

Among these enemies of his was Marcus Porcius Cato, called the Censor. Cato was a man who was famous for what men call the old Roman virtues, for he proved himself a warrior reckless of his own danger, yet shrewd and wary, and one who held with firm doggedness to every purpose he set before himself and to every rule of life he laid down. Moreover, he scorned all manner of easy living, and would have had all men to live as carefully as himself. But Cato was hard and harsh, not fearing pain himself, and careless whether others suffered, regarding only the things that he considered useful, and despising the things that make life lovely and gracious as well as the things that are merely pleasant and the things that are harmful. And so, because Scipio was not of a like ungracious temper, Cato was very ready to think ill of him.

Cato's name of Censor was given to him because at Rome Censor was the title of a great officer of State who was guardian of public morals; and when Cato was himself appointed to this

office he was very rigid in punishing whatever he thought foolish or unseemly, fearing the great and powerful no more than the humble and mean, so that his rule as Censor remained in men's memory.

THE GRACCHI, WHO STROVE FOR THE PEOPLE AGAINST THE NOBLES

The daughter of Scipio, who was called Cornelia, was wedded to a certain Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus; and they had two sons, named Tiberius and Gaius. Their mother cared nothing to make a show of jewels, although she was wealthy, but would point to her two boys and say: "These are my jewels."

Now, after the Romans had overthrown Carthage, their armies vanquished many foreign foes, and the power of Rome became very great. But in Rome and in Italy the people suffered grievously. For since the old nobility had ceased to have all the power, a new order of nobles had sprung up out of those families whose members had held high office, and these new nobles tried to keep the power all in their own hands.

These senatorial families had managed to get possession of the new lands that Rome had won, so that everywhere were great estates tilled by the slaves of these nobles, and the old free yeoman farmers of Italy seemed likely to disappear altogether. But when Tiberius Gracchus was grown up he tried to make things better for the common folk, and to make the landowners give up to them the lands to which he said they really had no right. Still, though he wished that they should be fairly paid for what they lost, the nobles were very angry, and said that Tiberius was going about to win the favor of the commons and to make himself king.

The nobles and their followers then fell upon the followers of Tiberius, and Tiberius himself was struck down and murdered in the fray. But Gaius, the younger brother, waited his time, and after some years he, in turn, came forward as the people's champion, seeking also to give power to other Italians by making them citizens of Rome. But most of all Gaius desired to humble the nobles who had done his brother to death, and by his eloquence and boldness he came near to gaining his end. Yet, when they saw that the nobles were better prepared to fight, his supporters were afraid, and again the nobles and their followers fell upon them and slew many. And when Gaius saw how fickle the people were, and that they were willing, as he said, to remain slaves, he bade his faithful servant to thrust his sword into his heart, and so the servant slew him, and then, for the love of his dead master, slew himself by his side. But in after time the people honored the memory of these brothers, whom we know now as the Gracchi, and set up a statue of their mother Cornelia, writing thereon not that she was the daughter of the great Scipio, but that she was "the mother of the Gracchi."

Now you can see how the Roman state became divided between a Senate party and a popular party; and while the foreign wars went on, it came about that whenever a successful general won the favor of his soldiers he could use his army to give his own party power. Thus the popular party triumphed under Gaius Marius, and again the Senate's party seemed to have crushed them under the merciless leader Sulla. The blood of both parties was spilled like water, and instead of seeking the common weal, it seemed that every man cared only for his own gain, or, at best, for the gain of his party, so that some began to see that there would be no settled

order in Rome, but endless strife, until there should arise some one man strong enough and wise enough to crush all quarreling parties, and to take the government into his own hands and rule with the good of the whole state as his aim.

Among the Senate party, their great captain Sulla saw signs of great talent in a very young man whom we call Pompey. Therefore, Sulla raised him to high command, while other people sneered at him as a boy. But the boy led armies with great success, and when he returned from Africa, where he overthrew Sulla's enemies, Sulla hailed him by the title "Magnus," which means "great." But, after all, he did not prove to be really a very great man, though for a long time it seemed that he might possibly become the savior of the Roman state. For he was a skilful soldier, and, besides that, he was kind-hearted, and had a way that made him popular.

Then, while he was still a young man, he broke away from the Senate party, and became the chief of the people's party, and almost the chief man in the state. Soon after this he was appointed to destroy the bands of pirates who sailed over the Mediterranean Sea, and then he went to take command of the Roman armies in Asia, where there was a war going on against a barbarian monarch.

It was some years before Pompey finished that war successfully, and during the war there was in the city another man who was laying his own plans to become master of the Romans. This was the most famous of all Romans, Julius Cæsar.

CÆSAR AND POMPEY, THE FOREMOST MEN IN ROME

Cæsar had always belonged to the popular party, though he himself belonged to a noble family. He saw that if he wished to win power he must make himself a favorite with the people; and he saw, too, that the next thing would be to make Pompey feel that if they two joined together they could rule the Roman world; although there was a third, Crassus, who, because of his vast wealth, was a sort of rival to Pompey. When Pompey came back from the war with Mithridates, Cæsar managed so that the three agreed to act together; and no doubt Pompey thought he was himself going to be the chief of the three, seeing that Cæsar was as yet without practice in the wars, though famous as an orator. Yet it was Cæsar who devised measures that pleased the people.

Now Cæsar knew very well that the time would come when there would be open strife, whether he or Pompey should be the head of the state, and he got himself appointed to be governor of the province of Gaul, which means France. But as there were many warlike tribes in Gaul he required an army to bring them into subjection, and with this army he very soon showed that he was one of the most skilful soldiers who ever lived, with a wonderful power over his followers. Cæsar wrote a book of his wars in Gaul, which is a model of what such a book ought to be While he was there he crossed the British Channel and fought the Ancient Britons; but he only wished to see what the country was like, not to conquer it, so he went back to Gaul.

HOW THE STRIFE GREW UP BETWEEN CÆSAR AND POMPEY

But Pompey stayed at Rome, and made friends again with the Senate party. The news of Cæsar's victories in Gaul made him afraid that his rival would come back to Rome with his army and seize the chief power in the state; and Pompey thought that by staying at Rome he could best make

sure of being strong enough to check Cæsar. And when Cæsar saw that the time had come when he must either march to Rome at the head of an army or be thrust from power altogether, he led his troops across the River Rubicon, which was the boundary of his province. But since no governor might lead armies except in his own province, this was as much as to declare war upon the Roman Government. So now, when people do something which binds them to go on, and makes any turning back impossible, they are said to have "crossed the Rubicon."

The flight of Pompey and his sad death, and Cæsar's great grief

Then Pompey found that his own warlike prowess was forgotten, whereas the deeds of Cæsar were fresh in men's minds; and the soldiers everywhere declared in Cæsar's favor, so that Pompey had to fly from Italy. But afterwards he gathered a great army in Greece, and to Greece at last came Cæsar to fight him. At the battle of Pharsalia, Pompey was overthrown and forced to fly from there to Egypt; but as he was landing a murderer stabbed him in the back, and the head was hewn from his dead body. But when Cæsar also came thither, and Pompey's head was brought to him, he shed tears, and put the murderer to death. For this was notable in Cæsar, that he was, like Scipio, of a merciful mind, ready to take into favor those who had fought against him.

What Cæsar did, and why they plotted to take his life

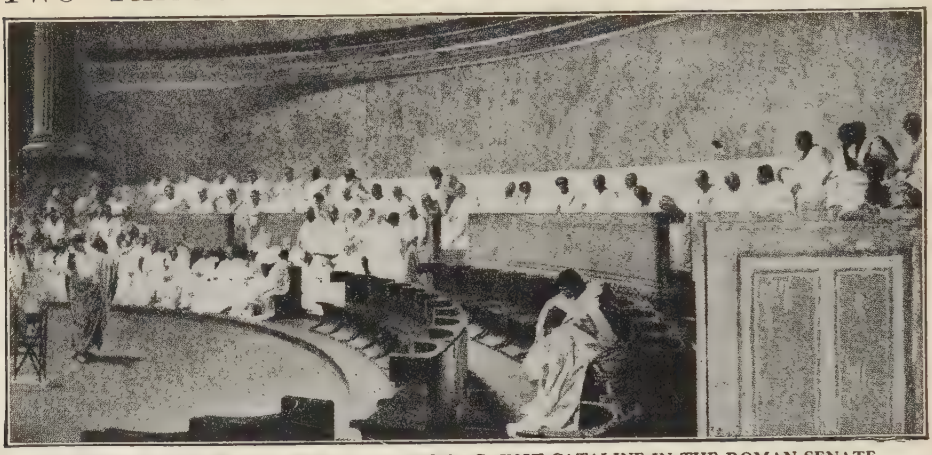
And having thus come to be the foremost man in all the world, Cæsar set himself to put the ruling of the great domains of Rome in order, and to make wise laws. But there were some who thought he would like to be crowned king, a thing hateful to all Romans; and some who wanted to get the power back into the hands of the Senate; and others who had private grudges against Cæsar, counting among their number not a few of the most powerful men in the state.

So they plotted to take Cæsar's life, and one day, as he stood near the statue of his dead rival, Pompey, they came to him, pretending to make a petition, and thereupon drew their swords and stabbed him to death, sending out through the city crying that Rome was freed from the tyrant. They forgot that, though Cæsar fell, either some other must take his place or the empire of Rome must be rent in pieces. For Cæsar had found and shown the only way, and his adopted son, Octavian, was destined to become the first of the Roman emperors, Cæsar Augustus. But the young Octavian was only eighteen, and none thought he would take the place of the great Julius.

How Mark Antony stirred up the people

But one Marcus Antonius, whom we commonly call Antony, who was a clever man and a friend of the murdered Cæsar, got leave by fair words to speak to the people, whom he stirred up to a great fury against those who had slain him. And after that none knew for a long time who would get the upper hand. But the young Cæsar made common cause with Antony, and presently those who had slain Cæsar and those who would avenge him were at war. Antony and Octavian overthrew the other party, of whom the most famous now is Marcus Brutus, by reason of the play of Julius Cæsar which Shakespeare wrote. This Marcus Brutus was one of those who had taken the side of Pompey in the war with Cæsar, and yet had been treated with great favor by Cæsar afterwards. But he

TWO FAMOUS SCENES IN THE ROMAN SENATE



CICERO DELIVERING HIS GREAT ORATION AGAINST CATALINE IN THE ROMAN SENATE

THE DEATH OF JULIUS CÆSAR IN THE SENATE-HOUSE IN ROME, STABBED BY HIS FRIENDS

Julius Cæsar became the foremost man in all the world. He set himself to rule the Roman Empire and to make wise laws. But there were some who thought he wanted to be crowned king, a thing hateful to all Romans, and for this ambition that Cæsar was supposed to have, although he thrice refused the crown, they killed him in the Senate-House at the foot of the statue of Pompey, his dead rival. But Cæsar's power was well founded, and his adopted son, Octavian, became the first of a long line of emperors.

was so full of the belief that the rule of one man in Rome must be bad for the state—perhaps because he remembered that the first Brutus was called great because he drove out the Tarquins—that he joined the conspiracy against his own friend. And it is said that when Cæsar saw him with his sword drawn he did not care to defend himself, but only said: "Thou too, Brutus?" and so fell, pierced by his friend's sword.

There was another famous Roman of those days whose name is known to everyone, the orator Cicero. He, too, was among those who took Pompey's side, but was afterwards treated by Cæsar with favor. It is said that the reason why the conspirators did not ask him to join them was, that they thought he would expect them to pay too much regard to his opinion, although they did not really think him a wise man.

CICERO THE ORATOR, ANTONY THE SOLDIER, OCTAVIAN THE EMPEROR

However, after the murder, Cicero made many famous speeches on their

side in opposition to Antony. Then Antony was so angry that Cicero was one of the people whom he specially named to be put to death; and when some of Antony's friends caught Cicero, they cut off his head and his hands and sent them to Antony. Besides being a great orator, so that his speeches are looked upon as models even now, Cicero wrote books which tell us more about those times than any other writings we have.

After the death of Cæsar it seemed at first that Octavian and Antony would divide the world between them; but then they also came to wars, since both wished to rule. And though Antony was the elder, and a practiced soldier, yet he was vanquished by Octavian, because he loved Cleopatra, the Queen of Egypt, and she loved him; and she persuaded him to remain in Egypt with her when he should have been making ready for his strife with Cæsar.

So, by land and sea, Antony was defeated, and when he saw that all hope of victory was gone he slew himself; and there was none left to stand between Octavian and the lordship of the Roman world that he had so long coveted.

THE EMPERORS OF ROME

FOR 400 years after the birth of Christ, Rome ruled almost all the known world, and a long line of emperors founded by Julius Cæsar, continued until the power of Rome passed away. Never before, or since, has the world known such remarkable rulers as the men we call the Cæsars. It was in the reign of the first Cæsar that Christ was born, and the Roman emperors lived through the most tremendous period of human history, when Christianity was slowly making its way among the people. It is strange that at that time the world was under the sway of the wickedest rulers who have ever lived; but it is fine to think that the beautiful influence of Christianity spread through the earth until it became stronger than the empire of the Cæsars, which fell to nothing, while Christianity took possession of the world. The son whom Julius Cæsar had adopted was sometimes called Cæsar and sometimes Octavian, because his real father's name was Octavius. After the slaying of the great Julius, there was long strife between the young Octavian and Mark Antony, since one or other might rule over the vast dominions of Rome, but not both.

And when at last Octavian got the better of Antony, who slew himself, a Cæsar was once more lord of the world, as we may say; for by this time the rule of Rome had spread over all the lands whose coasts are washed by the Mediterranean Sea; and kings far away in Asia, even if they did not call themselves subjects of Rome, still knew that they must obey her.

Now would this Cæsar face the mighty task of planning ways by which that great empire might be ruled so that order and justice should prevail, and of carrying out the plans; or would he, like many another, be satisfied to make all he could out of it for his own enjoyment and for the pleasing of his own whims and fancies?

He had been merciless, cruel, selfish. But now a change came. He took up the task; he set aside selfish aims; he learned to curb his fierce temper; and, with the aid of wise counselors, he laid the foundations of the Roman Empire so firmly that the evil rule of some of his successors, and civil wars,

Augustus, the first Emperor of Rome, gave peace and order to the Roman world. It was he who ordered a census to be taken, and it was while she was going up to Jerusalem for this counting of the people that Mary gave birth to Christ.

Tiberius succeeded Augustus, whose stepson he was. He was gloomy and morose, and made his life miserable by listening to tale-bearers until he dared trust no man, even in his own house; and he died, it may be, at the hands of those about his sick bed, who probably smothered him

and foreign foes, could not for centuries prevail to break it in pieces; and men lived under the Roman rule secure from violence, as they had lived under no other rule in the past.

Rome was a republic, and the people still hated the idea of a king; yet it was necessary that one man should be the real ruler. The difficulty was arranged by giving the one man a number of different offices and titles. Octavian was called Augustus, the name by which he is generally known, as a compliment, very much as we say "His Excellency, the President."

It was as if he had been made Speaker of the House, Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Admiral of the Navy all at once; so that he had in himself the authority of each of the chief offices of State given to him for life, though, of course, a great deal of the real work had to be done by others whom he appointed. Still, he could see that the work was properly done. But because the most necessary power of all was the control of the army, the title of Imperator, which has turned into the word Emperor, is the one which gradually became the most familiar.

So Augustus gave peace and order to the Roman world, and prosperity followed; and in his day Rome became a very splendid city, so that it was said of him that he found it built of brick, and left it built of marble. He showed favor to great poets, such as Virgil and Horace, and other great writers; so that in other countries the time when art and literature are supposed to have flourished most is called

Caligula succeeded Tiberius, whose great nephew he was. He became emperor when quite young, and after an illness he went mad. He lived a cruel life, and all Rome was glad when he was slain.

After Caligula's death, somebody saw a man hiding behind a curtain, and the soldiers pulled him out and found that it was Claudius. They carried him off and made him emperor.

the Augustan Age. And there happened in his reign something far removed from him, which yet changed the world more than all the statesmanship of Augustus; and that was the birth of Christ in a far-away province.

THE DEATH OF THE EMPEROR AUGUSTUS AND THE GLOOM OF TIBERIUS

For five-and-forty years Augustus ruled, and the Roman world was well accustomed to the new order of things before he died, old and weary; for all his greatness did not bring him happiness in his home. "Have I played my part well in the comedy?" he said, as he lay dying. "Then clap your hands, and so farewell."

No one then doubted that another emperor must succeed him, or that the successor must be his stepson, Tiberius.

Now Tiberius was not young; he was gloomy and morose. Yet he had served the state well, commanding great armies in distant lands where other generals had met with disasters. The old emperor had respected him, but no one loved him; and it is unlucky for him that the great Roman historian Tacitus has told the story of his reign in such a way that his name has become odious to all men. Yet some people say that this is not just, and that away from Rome people could see and feel that his government was firm and wise.

But in Rome itself, and, above all, among all those people who had to do with the emperor's court, his reign was grievous. For, knowing that men did not love him, Tiberius listened readily to tale-bearers, and there grew

up a foul brood of "informers" who were ready to lie away men's lives that they themselves might get rewards for their seeming loyalty. And the better a man was, the more likely was he to have wicked enemies who would charge him with plotting against the emperor; so that no man's life was safe.

THE UNHAPPY TIBERIUS AND HIS YOUNG NEPHEW GERMANICUS

With fair words crafty and evil men persuaded Tiberius to put his trust in them, and most of all a certain Sejanus, who became the captain of the guard. But a day came when certain proof was brought to Tiberius that Sejanus himself was plotting his murder, and Sejanus in one day was smitten down from his high estate and put to a shameful death. Yet after that Tiberius dare trust no man at all, and the victims of his fears multiplied, until he, too, died, it may be of disease, or it may be by the hands of those about his sick bed, who, as men believed, smothered him with pillows.

He had no son; but there had been a nephew of his who was called Germanicus for the fame he had won in the wars with the German barbarians. Germanicus died while quite a young man, and some fancied that he was poisoned by the emperor's device, since Tiberius feared any man who was a general favorite like Germanicus, and, above all, beloved by the soldiers.

THE MADNESS AND WICKEDNESS OF "LITTLE BOOTS," THE EMPEROR CALIGULA

However, Germanicus left a young son, whose name was Gaius; but he was called by the soldiers Caligula, which means "little boots," because when he was a tiny boy in his father's camp he used to wear little boots like those the soldiers wore. Now Caligula, being almost a boy, was made emperor for the sake of the memory of his father, Germanicus.

But very soon after he had a serious illness, and after his illness he became quite mad, though he was still bright, so that people did not see at first that he was really mad. In his madness he thought that he was a god, and, moreover, he had a horrible delight in killing people, among many other wild fancies; so that one day he said he wished all the people in Rome had only one neck between them, so that he might cut off all their heads at once. Thus it seemed that in a few months Caligula would shed more innocent blood than ever Tiberius had spilled in his long reign, and therefore certain officers, fearing for their own lives, banded together and slew him.

Since this deed was done without warning, none knew who should now be made emperor, or whether there would be a new emperor; and it seemed that for a time all law and order were over; but the soldiers of the guard resolved to show their own power, and began to pillage the palace.

HOW THE TREMBLING CLAUDIUS HID BEHIND A CURTAIN IN THE PALACE

While they were pillaging, one saw the feet of a man who was hiding behind a curtain. The soldiers pulled him out, and when they saw that it was one Claudius, the uncle of Caligula, but a feeble man and of no account, they cried out, mocking, that he should be the new emperor, and carried him off to the camp. And since none could command the guard, Claudius was proclaimed emperor.

Now he was not bloodthirsty like Caligula, loving rather books and learning of a kind that active men often despise; but Rome was ruled by his servants, and by his evil wife, Messalina. She was so wicked that

when Claudius found out her wickedness he put her to death; yet he married another wife, Agrippina, the sister of Caligula, who was no less wicked, and she ruled in place of Messalina. So that all through his reign Claudius, without meaning to do evil, was persuaded by his bad counselors to shed nearly as much innocent blood as those who had gone before him. At last, however, his wife, Agrippina, poisoned him, that she might make her son, Nero, emperor in his place, for she had been married and had a son before she became the wife of Claudius.

There was no one whom the soldiers cared to make emperor except Nero, so it was he who followed Claudius; and at first, while he was quite young, he allowed his tutor, the wise Seneca, and the grave Burrhus, the captain of the guard, to rule well enough; while he spent his own time in studying art and music till he came to fancy himself a wonderful artist and musician. But presently he was not contented with that, and showed himself the most cruel and bloodthirsty of all the emperors, so that his name is a by-word to this day.

First of all he had his own mother murdered, but that vile crime was forgiven him because she had been so evil a woman. There was a great fire which burned down half the city of Rome, and men said that this was his own doing, and that while the flames raged he sang and played upon his harp the song of the burning of Troy. But, fearing the rage of the people, he pretended that it was the Christians who had done this thing, and many of them were hunted out and burned to death or flung to the lions in the amphitheatre to amuse the populace.

So many such deeds he wrought, so many noble men and women were his victims, that they cannot be recounted; but at last news came that a general named Galba, in Spain, had revolted. And when men knew that someone had ventured to rise up against him, there were none who would stand by the cruel tyrant; the guards themselves deserted the emperor. In terror he fled; but when he knew that his hiding-place was found, he dared rather to die by his own hand than to fall into the hands of his foes—pitied by none save himself. His last thought and his last words were that the world was losing a wonderful artist.

Now in quick succession three men claimed the empire. First the old soldier Galba, with his legions from Spain; then a young man named Otho, chosen by the guard at Rome, who overthrew Galba; then the glutton Vitellius, chosen by the armies in Germany, whose troops overthrew Otho. But then there came one stronger than any of these, the skilled general Vespasian, who commanded the Roman armies in the East.

Vespasian and the two sons who ruled after him are called the Flavian emperors, because the family name was Flavius. Vespasian was of no high birth; but he gave Rome what she most needed at the time—a chief who meant to restore order and good government, who had no thirst for blood, and did not care to waste on display and luxury the money that was needed for more useful things. So when once he had crushed resistance to his rule, there was no more violence and bloodshed.

After him his son Titus reigned only for a short time. He had won fame before as a soldier, during his father's rule, by the great siege of Jerusalem, which had rebelled; and when he conquered it he dealt with it very mercilessly, laying it in ruins, and

carrying away the treasures of the Temple to Rome. But when he became emperor he was resolved to win fame for kindness and mercy, so that when a day passed on which he had set no wrong right and relieved no distress, he said to those about him, "My friends, I have lost a day." This was so unlike what people had expected of him that some think that if he had not died young he would again have shown the cruelty of his earlier life.

That is what his brother Domitian, who succeeded him, did. He began his reign well enough, but presently turned to evil ways after the manner of Tiberius, persecuting the Christians among his other ill-deeds. Thus it was that when Domitian, in his turn, was murdered, there was none to mourn for him.

For more than a hundred years after Vespasian made himself emperor, Domitian was the only one of all the emperors who was not counted among the good princes; and the five who came next after Domitian are often called the "five good emperors." The first, indeed, whose name was Nerva, hardly counts. He was an old man already when the Senate offered him the throne—the soldiers made no disturbance—and his rule was very short. But just as Julius Cæsar adopted the young Octavian as his son, so Nerva adopted as his son a great soldier, Trajan, who was trusted by the army; and thus it was made certain that Trajan would be emperor after him. Trajan was one of the very best men for the throne; moreover, he was a great warrior, more at home in the camp than in the court, and waged successful wars with the barbarian tribes in Dacia beyond the River Danube. However, Trajan made choice of a wise and able general and statesman to succeed him as emperor. No one opposed the accession of Hadrian, who, at the time, was in command of the army in the East. But he had already seen the mistake Trajan was making at the end of his reign in enlarging the empire, so the first thing he did was to make peace with the border nations, fixing the bounds of the empire where they had been before, though he took care to let everyone see that his armies were going to be just as strong as before. Then he went back to Italy and devoted himself to making the good arrangements for government which Trajan had made still better.

HADRIAN, WHO TRAVELED THROUGHOUT THE EMPIRE AND WENT TO ENGLAND

But the most remarkable thing he did was that, although traveling was no easy matter in those days, when men had to go from place to place either on foot or on horseback, he traveled over the Roman Empire, and saw with his own eyes how each part of it was governed; and he even went to Britain, and built there a famous rampart between England and Scotland, which is called Hadrian's Wall to this day.

Though Hadrian made the task of ruling easier for his successors, yet the task could never be a light one; and it was well that the two who followed him were both wise and resolute. The first was Titus Aurelius Antoninus, surnamed Pius for his virtue, whom Hadrian had chosen. In his reign the Roman governor ruled over a part of Scotland as well as England, and a new rampart was raised across Scotland which is called the Wall of Antonine. He adopted as a son, to help him and afterwards to succeed him, the famous Marcus Aurelius.

MARCUS AURELIUS, THE EMPEROR WHO WROTE A BOOK THAT WE CAN BUY TODAY

These two great Antonines are reckoned for all time as the type of

noble princes, since their care was altogether for the people over whom they ruled, and not at all for themselves. This is true, although Marcus Aurelius dealt hardly with the Christians and persecuted them, because it seemed to him, having no knowledge of the truth of their doctrine, that they were teaching men to defy the law and to be impious. Yet he wrote a book of "Meditations," which people treasure even now, being so full of wise thoughts and noble counsel, although he knew nothing of the hopes of the Christian faith.

It is strange, too, to think that he wrote much of this book while he was in camp at the head of armies in wild regions, whose fierce border tribes were again rising up to do battle against the might of Rome; for though Marcus Aurelius loved peace, he showed himself a skilled leader in war. And when he died all men mourned for him. Yet he, too, made one unhappy blunder, for he named to succeed him his son Commodus, who was almost as bad as his father was good.

THE TYRANT DIOCLETIAN, WHO TRIED TO DESTROY CHRISTIANITY

Now during the next hundred years there were a great many emperors, some of whom reigned for no more than a few months or even weeks. Only two or three reigned for so long as ten years. For whenever an emperor died—and a good many were murdered—two or three generals were usually proclaimed emperor by the troops in that part of the empire where they were in command. But at the end of a century a soldier named Diocles, who changed his name to Diocletian, succeeded in making himself emperor, and from his time there was no more pretense that the government of Rome was really a republic in which a man happened to hold a number of important offices all at once, but it might almost be said that the emperor's will was law. Now, Diocletian is also famous for this—that he was the last of the emperors who tried hard to destroy Christianity, because by this time the Christian community had become large and powerful enough to sway the minds of men; so that the persecution under Diocletian was the worst the Christians ever endured.

Now when Diocletian thought that his work for Rome was completed he resigned his power; but he had not taken steps to make sure that his successor would be fitted to rule. And so there was strife again between the great governors of the four quarters of the empire, each fearing that unless he made himself chief of all he would lose his own rulership. And in this strife the victor was he whom we call Constantine the Great; and the battle in which he overthrew his chief rival is called the battle of the Milvian Bridge, and this was also the victory of Christianity. For Constantine had already shown goodwill to the Christians; and before the battle, as he related himself, he thought he saw a vision—the vision of the Cross, and over the Cross words which mean: "Under this standard thou shalt be victorious." From that day he took the Cross for his standard; and, having become emperor, he made Christianity the State religion of the Roman Empire, so that the State was no longer hostile to the Christian Church. Constantine also made the city of Byzantium the chief city of the empire in place of Rome, and gave it the name of Constantinople.

ARTISTS OF ROME

IN ALL the world there is no other place so remarkable for its art as Rome. It is wonderful beyond all other cities because of the relics of past power and grandeur which it preserves. The sight of its buildings of ancient splendor makes us think of that story of the finding of ancient Babylon, the mighty city of which the Bible tells us so much, and which was the greatest in the world when Rome was not yet built.

But Babylon perished, and for thousands of years lay buried under the sand and soil swept over it by the winds. And one day a man of our own time discovered the vast mounds of rubbish under which it lies. It was deserted, save for a few savage tribesmen who pitched their dirty tents there, and pastured their lean flocks.

Rome has not fallen into decay like Babylon, for it is still a populous city. Its population is, however, only about a third of the population of the Rome of two thousand years ago, and the people who now live in Rome do not produce the rich art treasures of olden days, although there are many who are both cultured and wealthy. In fancy we like to picture Rome as peopled with the great men and women of olden times who made it the most famous city in the whole world, the home of the people who ruled over all the earth that was known in their day.

Wonderful as she still is, Rome lives, and must live, to a large extent upon her past—a past such as no other city possesses. The pages of history teach us how Rome came to be the greatest power in the world. We learn there, also, that the power of the emperors declined, and that the power of the Church increased, so that the Church became ruler of Rome. This great city, where, in the early centuries, Christians suffered such frightful tortures, became the capital of Christendom.

Rome was attacked, as her strength declined, by strong and barbarous people. The popes managed to impress the Christian faith upon the conquerors, and were themselves

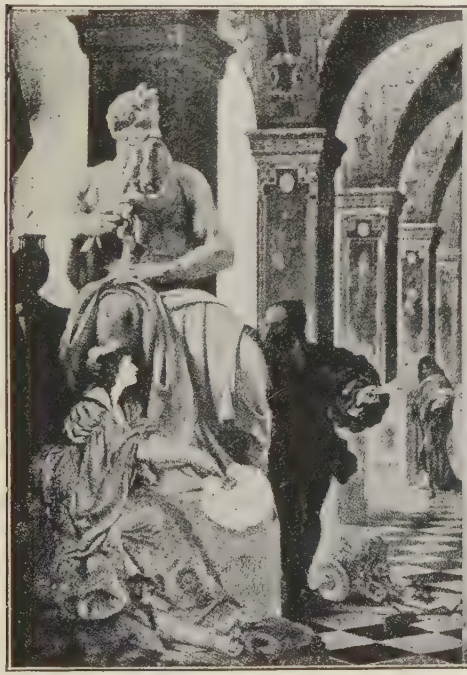
strengthened by these dreaded masters of Rome. In course of time the popes ceased to be merely the heads of the Church. They became rulers; they helped to settle the affairs of practically all nations which professed Christianity. It is important to remember this, for only by so doing can we understand how Rome owes her second life to the popes.

THE MAGNIFICENCE OF ROME UNDER HER OLD PAGAN RULERS

Rome reached her greatest grandeur under pagan rulers. They had temples and theaters and circuses such as the world has never seen since; they had huge and wonderful temples to all their gods and goddesses; they had lordly palaces and villas to dwell in; they had places of entertainment in which 250,000 people could be seated to witness the chariot races. Their noblest statuary was erected by the sculptors of antiquity, to glorify conquerors or to celebrate the gods whom the people worshipped. Never was there so splendid a city, before or since, as Rome in the height of her power under the pagan consuls and emperors.

Naturally, then, when the popes, who were the heads of the Christian Church, became rulers of Rome, they were anxious that Christian Rome should celebrate her faith as generously as pagan Rome had. And pope after pope commanded the greatest artists in the world, sculptors and painters, to convert heathen temples into Christian churches, to build new churches, and to make the city beautiful in the eyes of those who worshipped God.

Much of the old Rome remained, and still remains, for her barbarian conquerors could not overthrow and



Michaelangelo was wonderfully influenced by a pious lady named Vittoria Colonna. She was the chief inspirer of his poetry and pictures. Her death, in 1547, left the artist broken in health and spirits. Here we see the lady and the artist at the foot of his great statue of Moses.

In this picture the famous artist Raphael, of whom it has been said that he would have been a great painter even if he had come into the world without hands, is talking to La Fornarina, a lady with whom he fell in love, and to whom he wrote some beautiful sonnets.

carry away all the vast monuments to bygone greatness; and it is these relics of those wonderful ages which make Rome today such a sad, yet fascinating, spectacle.

The Artistic Glories of Rome That Are Unmatched in the Whole World

But for the beauty lavished upon her in Christian days we must go into the churches, into the galleries, and into the Vatican. There we can see wonders of art that are unmatched in the whole world. It would be hopeless to attempt anything more than a sketch of a few of the men who have made the beauties of Christian Rome. Books upon books have been written on the subject, and many more might be written without wearing out the theme.

It will serve as an introduction for us merely to glance at some of these men whom the re-awakening of art in Europe gave to Rome for her adorning. How to give each man his due is the difficulty. The vast Vatican palace, one of the chief glories of later Rome, took hundreds of years to build. If we could tell its story, and the story of the men who worked to bring it to completion, we should tell the history of the politics and art of Europe during all that time.

It stands where the ancient Romans used to gather to worship an old oak, where, later, the cruel Caligula built a huge circus; and hereabouts this ruler would delight himself at night by walking forth and slaughtering distinguished people—senators and Roman ladies whom he met on his way.

The Pope Who Dreamed of the Greatest Palace in the World

Here, too, Nero afterwards had his circus, in which he nailed Christians to crosses, disguised some as wild beasts and had them worried to death by dogs, and covered others with pitch and set fire to them, so that they might make living torches to light up his night's amusement in the circus.

These days passed, and the Vatican became the residence of the popes towards the end of the fifth century, though during the whole of the Middle Ages the papal residence was at the Lateran. In 1309 Innocent III began to rebuild the Vatican as the settled home of the popes. He was the powerful pope who tried to take England away from King John, and made the latter own himself the servant of the pope.

The work at the Vatican went on from pope's reign to pope's reign, until the ambitious thought entered the mind of Nicholas V to make the Vatican the greatest and most magnificent palace in the world. He did not live to see his scheme completed, but his successors carried it on. Today the Vatican is the residence of the Pope in Rome. It is the seat of a famous library, museums and collections of rich art treasures. It covers an area of thirteen and one-half acres, of which about six are occupied by the twenty courts, 200 staircases, and about 1,000 chapels, rooms and galleries that go to make up this vast building.

The popes who built the Vatican will always be remembered as among the men who helped to make Rome beautiful, and we may here note the names of some of them. First there was the powerful Innocent III, who began the rebuilding; followed by Nicholas III, who began the scheme of enlargement. John XXIII added to the security of the palace by connecting it by a passage with the fortress of St. Angelo.

Nicholas V, the pope with the master-builder's mind, planned the scheme for making the Vatican what it

has since become—the home of the pope and the cardinals, the offices of the Church, the meeting-place of all her pilgrims, the starting-place of all her missioners. The work which began under this pope was carried on by Alexander VI and Paul II made further extensions, and then Sixtus IV built the world-famous Sistine Chapel, so-called after his name.

THE CHURCH OF ST. PETER THAT COST MORE THAN FIFTY MILLION DOLLARS

We now turn to the building of the huge church of St. Peter, Rome's greatest sanctuary, the church dearest to Roman Catholics, as the Vatican adjoining is the seat of the Pope, the head of the church. The building of the church was begun in 1506 by Julius II, and extended over 176 years. The cost of the main building alone was fifty million dollars. The approach to the church is a place called the Piazza di San Pietro which is elliptical in shape. It embraces several acres and round about it are great colonnades that are very beautiful. A striking object in the center of this piazza is a huge obelisk of red granite. It was brought from Egypt in the reign of Caligula, but was not used until the actual building of the church. It is a building unmatched in splendor for its marbles and statuary and paintings, and for the richness of its decorations in jewels and precious metals.

But Rome, as a city, suffered by the building of this mighty cathedral. Nearly all the marble with which the interior is decked was taken, not from modern quarries, but from ancient buildings, many of which were leveled to the ground for the sake of only one or two pieces. However, be its history what it may, Rome has the richest and most remarkable church in history, the church which cost most and took longest to build. It also costs more to maintain than any other church.

THE GREAT TREASURES DESTROYED TO MAKE ROOM FOR ST. PETER'S

The present cathedral occupies the place of an earlier one. The older church was rich beyond comparison in works of art, which had taken long to gather together, but when the first building perished these were destroyed. The size of the church is awe inspiring. It is 613 feet long and 87 feet wide. The dome goes up to a height of over 400 feet. Altars, chapels. tombs, and works of art abound.

The Vatican and the great cathedral and the hundreds of churches and the richly stored museums and galleries are the works which have been carried out under the popes and the men who have lived in the times during which the popes have been masters of the Eternal City.

Now we may turn to the story of some of the artists who have worked for the glorification of the city.

Fra Angelico made the world grateful to him, not alone for the sermons which he preached with his brush; he inspired men with his own ardor and made them great painters too.

FABRIANO, THE HAPPY ARTIST WHOSE PICTURES ARE FULL OF JOY

One of these was the warm-hearted Gentile da Fabriano, who was born about the year 1360, at Fabriano, the town from which he took his name. He was nearly forty years older than the painter-friar. Nevertheless, it was from this holy man that Fabriano learned, though he may first have studied under Allegretto de Nuzio.

Some of his finest work was done for Florence and for Venice, the latter city giving him a pension and a title of nobility. Fabriano was well advanced in years when his fame reached Rome, and caused Pope Martin V to

summon him thither to help in adorning the fine church of St. John Lateran. His pictures express the joyfulness of spirit by which he was always animated. He had something of the happy childish spirit which lives in the delightful pictures of the saintly Fra Angelico.

Among the famous artists of Florence of the early fifteenth century was Fra Filippo Lippi, who, born about 1406, lived all his life in Florence. His son, Filippino Lippi, who was born about 1458 and died in 1504, was only a child when his father died, but the genius of the sire descended upon the son, and the fame of the Lippi family was carried by Filippino to Rome, where to this day some of the glories of his art are to be found in the frescoes which he painted in the Minerva church to illustrate scenes in the life of St. Thomas Aquinas.

THE MASTERPIECE OF BOTTICELLI THAT WAS HIDDEN AWAY

But a greater artist than Filippino studied in the school of Fra Lippi. This was Sandro Botticelli, born at Florence in 1446. He was to have been a goldsmith, and was apprenticed to one named Botticelli, and took that name, for his own surname was Filipepi. Happily, he was passed on to Lippi, and then he caught the spirit of his master, and improved upon it. In his youth he loved the myths and legends of classical stories, and painted his ideas of them upon immortal canvases. Such was his "Birth of Venus" and "Venus with the Graces." But religious art presently called him, and two of his devotional pictures are among the greatest artistic glories of Florence today.

The manner in which he painted did not always please the critics, for one of his pictures was declared to be heretical and had to be hidden away. Nevertheless, he was called to Rome, and gave the best of his life to painting three glorious frescoes in the Sistine Chapel at the Vatican. He found time to illustrate the great work of Dante with engravings of exceeding beauty. Large as were the sums he earned, his declining years were passed in poverty, relieved only by a pension from the Medici family. To make matters worse, he was stricken with lameness and blindness, and he was quite unable to follow the art that he loved so much.

We now approach the company of giants, a period of marvelous artists, sculptors, and painters. First let us take Donato Bramante, who was born near Urbino in 1444, and died at Rome in 1514. He was at school in Milan, where he studied geometry and perspective, sciences which in those days were not at all well understood by even the great artists. Bramante, therefore, is of much importance to us in history for the pains that he took to spread the study of these sciences, for by so doing, as we can all easily understand, he introduced greater exactness and truth into his work.

BRAMANTE, WHO LAID THE FOUNDATIONS OF ST. PETER'S

Bramante was one of the best painters of his day, but he laid aside his brush for the pencil and compasses of the architect. Invited to Rome by Pope Alexander VI, and working on under Julius II, he first built great galleries for the Vatican, and then designed and laid the foundations of St. Peter's. He meant to make the cathedral in the form of a Greek cross with a noble dome to it, but the work had been only eight years in progress when he died.

At this time three of the greatest geniuses of the world were reaching the height of their glory. One was Leonardo da Vinci, who had but little to do

with Rome; but he was one of the three greatest figures there for a short time of his life.

MICHAELANGELO, THE GREATEST ARTIST IN AN AGE OF GREAT ARTISTS

A younger man than Leonardo was Michaelangelo—younger by twenty-three years, but who was eight years older than Raphael. With these three men for rivals, we may rightly say that this was an age of giants. Michaelangelo and Leonardo were rivals for a work at Florence, resulting in each producing a world's masterpiece; and they were rivals again at Rome.

It is strange that the same age should produce two such men as Leonardo and Michaelangelo, for in many respects they were alike. They towered above nearly all their fellows in several of the arts. Michaelangelo was one of the finest sculptors that ever lived; he was one of the greatest painters; yet he was also so eminent a poet that his verses placed him in the very forefront of poets of a particular type.

WHEN OLD MICHAELANGELO LOOKED BACK UPON HIS WORK AS A BOY

Michaelangelo was born at Caprese, Italy, March 6, 1475, and died at Rome, February 18, 1564. His father, a man of good family, thought it degrading for his son to follow the profession of a painter; but the boy's whole affections were given to art, so he was apprenticed to a painter, when he so soon became expert that at fourteen he was able to correct the work of his master. Long, long afterwards, when Michaelangelo was an old man, they showed him some of the paintings which he had done when a little boy. "Ah," he said, "I was a better artist then than I am now."

His life, though so distinguished, was full of vexations. While he was yet young, a jealous fellow-apprentice, in a quarrel, doubled up his fist and struck him with such force as to crush his nose, and disfigure him for life. By the time that he was thirty the fame of Michaelangelo had spread throughout Italy, and he was called to Rome to undertake the gigantic tomb, or mausoleum, in which the then reigning pope, Julius II, intended to be buried. This vast work engaged him on and off for practically the remainder of his life.

He had been only two years on this work when the pope bade him undertake the decoration of the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel. Here was a task for one man! The ceiling is vaulted, 150 feet long and 50 feet broad. Unaided, Michaelangelo carried out the work in little more than four years. No single work in modern art can compare with this.

A CEILING WHICH IS ONE OF THE WONDERS OF THE WORLD

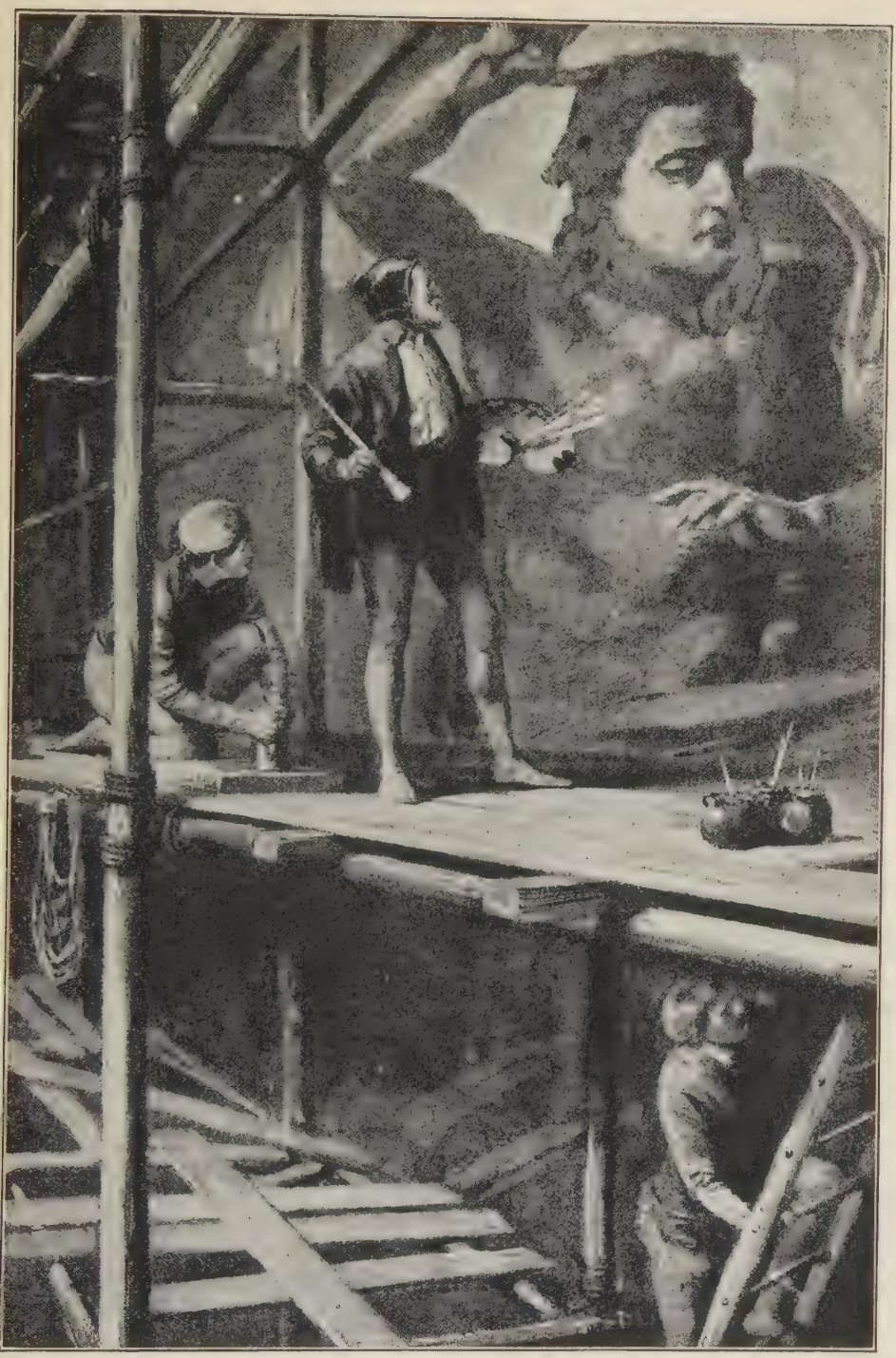
Some of the figures on the ceiling are grand and terrible, others are exquisitely soft and beautiful, and the whole is full of deep feeling, like some great poem in figure and action. This tremendous work has been the wonder of the artistic world ever since it was finished.

While he was at work on it, Michaelangelo gave every thought to it. He would have no help, he would have no onlookers. The chapel was closed, and he hated to see even the pope himself there. One day the pope did creep in on tiptoe to see how the work was progressing. The painter saw him, and angrily let fall some tools with a crash near where the pope was standing. The pope fled, but was so angry that Michaelangelo had to leave Rome until the storm blew over.

It must have been about this time that he carved one of his famous statues for Florence. For years there had stood in a backyard in Florence a great misshapen block of marble

MICHAELANGELO'S FAMOUS CEILING IN THE VATICAN

The magnificent ceiling of the Sistine Chapel, painted by Michaelangelo, is one of the greatest glories of Rome. This picture of it gives some idea of the grandeur of the decoration, which cannot be really suggested on paper.



MICHAELANGELO'S LAST JUDGMENT

None but Michaelangelo could have conceived and painted the great picture of the Last Judgment that stands out nstinct with power and majesty on the wall of the Sistine Chapel. It never ceases to astonish men.

which another sculptor, long before, had spoiled in trying to shape from it the figure of a giant. Michaelangelo was asked if he could carve a figure from it. He said that he could, and the magic of his chisel won from the huge block the great statue of David, with which the world is now familiar. Another famous work is his fine statue of Moses.

How Raphael was Inspired by the Work of Michaelangelo

Still he was not at liberty to go on with his work at Rome, for a war occurred in which Florence was besieged, and Michaelangelo was set to work to fortify the city against the enemy. When he at last settled down in Rome again, he resumed the work on the tomb of Pope Julius. He was eventually made architect for St. Peter's Cathedral, and designed the great dome.

He never married, but he loved a beautiful marchioness, and it was his love for her which inspired some of the most beautiful of his poems. He died when nearly eighty-nine years of age. To the last, though he was proud and reserved in his dealings with other men, he was always a humble student of his art. "I am still learning," this great man used to say right up to the time of his death.

One of the effects of Michaelangelo's work was to inspire Raphael. The latter, born at Urbino, in 1483, was only twenty-five when, famous for his work at Perugia and Florence, he was invited by Julius II to Rome. He had already come under the influence of Michaelangelo and Leonardo, but apparently it was not until Michaelangelo's frescoes in the Sistine Chapel were unveiled that he felt the full effects of the master's genius. It carried a message and an inspiration to him that bore wonderful fruit. Not that he copied Michaelangelo. He was too great to be a copyist. He was the greatest painter that ever lived, and did not need to copy.

But we may be inspired by others less expert than ourselves, and though Raphael was a greater painter than Michaelangelo, it was owing to the influence of the latter that there burst forth that light which was to illumine the remaining days of the young man.

The pope made him master architect of St. Peter's, the post to which, at Raphael's death, Michaelangelo succeeded. He was also the foremost painter in rank as well as in achievement. He painted the famous frescoes at the Vatican, glorious pictures from Scripture, pictures for the tapestries in the cathedral at Arras, now famous, throughout the world, portraits, studies and sketches. No man ever produced more. He seemed to feel that he was not to live long, and that he must devote every hour to his work. It was well for mankind that he did, for he died when only thirty-seven years of age.

A Good Man Who Worked Hard and a Bad Man Who Made Beautiful Things

In his all too short life he gave to Rome, and through Rome to the world, the most marvelous collections of paintings ever done by human hand. He was mourned not only as a great artist, but as a greatly beloved man. Everybody admired him, and so gentle and sweet was his nature that it was said that the very animals loved him.

Quite a different type of man from the men already mentioned was Benvenuto Cellini, the goldsmith and sculptor, who won such fame from his work in Rome during the time of Clement VII and Paul III. He was born in Florence in 1500, and died there in 1571.

His work was very beautiful, and on this account he was forgiven many

Michelangelo Vittoria Colonna Pope Leo Raphael

POPE JULIUS II AND HIS CONTEMPORARIES VIEWING THE STATUE OF APOLLO

crimes for which others would have been executed. He lived in rough, lawless days, but Cellini was worse than the average lawless man of his day, and thought nothing of slaying anyone with whom he quarreled. He wrote the story of his life, and it is considered to be one of the most remarkable works of its kind in the whole of the world's literature.

While Cellini was swinging his sword and plying his tools, his very opposite in character, Sebastian del Piombo, was quietly at work with his paintings and portraits. He was a native of Venice, it is supposed, and was born in 1485. A friend of Michael-angelo, it is believed that he had that great man's help in painting his "Resurrection of Lazarus," which now hangs in the National Gallery in London. He was a good, pious man, as well as a distinguished artist, and towards the close of his life became a priest.

Claude Lorrain, the Great Painter who Could Not Be a Baker

Now we go forward to the seventeenth century, and in its first year we come upon a baby named Claude Gellée, who, being born at Champagne, in Lorrain, is known to the world as Claude Lorrain. His father was an humble pastrycook, and as Claude grew up he wished to make him a pastrycook too. But the boy could not be made to learn. "He will never know how to heat an oven or bake pastry," his father grumbled.

Claude's brother was a stonemason, and thought the little chap would never be strong enough to follow that trade. "He's so studious that you had better make a priest of him, father," he said.

But study of the ordinary sort was beyond Claude. He would go into the fields and gaze with wonder and delight on all he saw from dawn to dusk, but he could not mind a baker's oven nor use a mason's chisel. He suffered terribly at home, so one day, meeting a party of Flemish artists who were going to Rome to study, he decided to join them, and was allowed to act as their servant.

How Claude Lorrain Waited for his Opportunity

Arrived in Rome, he entered the service of an artist, grinding his colors and making himself generally useful. He was not lazy, as his father had thought; here in the atmosphere of a studio, with all he loved, no day was too long for him, for he was now able to study art. After some years of this life, he wandered forth on his travels, studying wherever he went. Returning again to Rome when twenty-seven he started his career as a landscape artist.

Progress was slow but sure, and at the end of ten years he was commissioned to paint a picture for Cardinal Bentivoglio, who introduced him to Pope Urban VIII, and this made his fortune. All good patrons of art were now anxious to have his works, but he would not readily part with them.

For one picture the pope offered him as much gold as would cover the canvas on which the picture was painted, but Lorrain would not sell it. Illness marred his later years, but to the end Lorrain was diligent and faithful to his art. He died in 1682.

Salvator Rosa, the Merry Man who Painted Sad Pictures

Another famous landscape painter of this time was Salvator Rosa, who was born at Arenella, near Naples, in 1615, and died in Rome in 1673. He received very little instruction, but wandered about studying Nature in her wildest moods and aspects, and painted pictures strong and gloomy and original. That the pictures should be gloomy is strange, seeing that his nature was so mirthful. He was a

brilliantly talented man, whose verses made fun of the great people of the time without fear or favor.

A painting called "Tityus Tortured by the Vulture" made Rosa famous at twenty-three, and he became the center of a group of distinguished friends. But his verses got him into trouble, and he had to flee to Florence on pain of death.

THE BOY CANOVA, WHO MODELED A LION IN BUTTER

Another artist who helped to maintain the artistic fame of Rome was Antonio Canova, the father of a new school of sculpture. He was born at Possagno, in Venetian territory, on November 1, 1757, and died in Venice on October 13, 1822. His father died when Antonio was only three years old, and the child was left to the care of his grandparents. A grand old man was his grandfather, who delighted to teach the child to model, and to indulge his fancy in the little workshop where the old man toiled as a stonecutter. At nine years of age, Canova, in order to better his education, was placed in the household of a nobleman, where he soon distinguished himself. There was to be a banquet at the house, but one of the chief ornaments of the table, a great fancy dish, failed to arrive. The host was in despair, but little Canova beautifully modeled a lion in butter, with which everyone was delighted. His master was so pleased that he sent the boy to receive lessons in sculpture. Soon, however, the lad was left to look after himself.

In the morning he studied in the academy or galleries. In the afternoon he worked for a sculptor. In the evening he read. Then he set up a little workshop in a cell under a monastery, and for four years he toiled and studied. At last he produced his first statue, and it set all the great art critics wondering. The Venetian senate sent him to Rome to study when he was twenty-three years of age.

Canova had carefully studied all the ancient classical statuary that he had seen, and he tried, while true to the best old traditions, to give his own work something of the charm of his own mind. It was a new and daring style, and in Rome everybody scorned it.

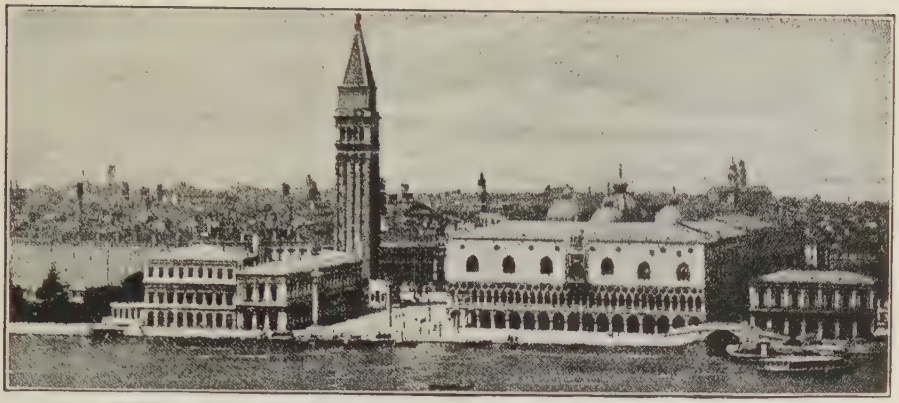
WHAT CANOVA SAID ONE DAY AT THE BRITISH MUSEUM

But Canova was quite undaunted. For twenty years he worked away in extreme poverty at his ideal, and he conquered, in spite of all jealousy, contempt, and rivalry. His work became one of the glories of Italy.

It was to him that Englishmen turned when the critics condemned the Elgin Marbles at the British Museum. Canova came to London to see them, and declared them to be among the finest examples of Grecian art in the world.

With the name of Canova must be linked that of the Danish sculptor, Bertel Thorvaldsen (1770-1844), who studied and worked in Rome most of his life. His first great work won the praise of every one, including Canova. Thorvaldsen, like Canova, was inspired by ancient Greece, and so great was their influence that sculptors of today who follow the classic style are said to belong to the school of Canova and Thorvaldsen.

A FEAST AT TITIAN'S HOUSE IN VENICE



VENICE, SHOWING THE DOGE'S PALACE AND THE FAMOUS BELL-TOWER
After standing for 800 years, the tower fell in 1902 but since then it has been rebuilt in its original form.

MAKERS OF VENICE

VENICE the Queen of the Adriatic, is old, but her age does not disfigure her. Our admiration and love for her increases as she grows older. She is very beautiful in her old age, but glories belong to the past. She stands like some beautiful vision upon the sands of the seashore and men as they see her image reflected in the gleaming waters of the lagoon, wonder if it be not some fairy fancy that they picture. Cities such as Venice seem to belong more to dreams and poetic visions than to this world of ours. Before asking who made Venice, we must for a moment recall the means by which this strange city came into existence.

Many hundreds of years ago, when barbarians overthrew the might of Rome, a small number of Roman descendants were driven before the conquering Goths and Lombards down to the coast of the Adriatic Sea. They hid in swamps and in the little islands formed near the coast. Many years passed, and the handful of people who had fled in terror from the Goths became noted as bold fishermen and sailors.

Each island was controlled by its own tribune, appointed by the people of the island, and each island was quite independent of the others. After two centuries, however, the people appointed one man a duke, or doge, to rule over them all, and they became rich and powerful. No longer did they fear attack from the mainland. They constructed bridges to join the islands together, and canals were made along the channels where the water had previously flowed unchecked. They built a powerful fleet, and this fleet they sent, in 827 to Alexandria, where it is said to have recovered and carried back to Venice the body of St. Mark. In honor of this saint the great Cathedral of St. Mark was built.

Venice became a crowded, wealthy, and important city. She sent out her soldiers and her ships with the Crusaders. She built up a great trade. She bought from the East and sold to the West. She bought from the West and sold to the East, and her own manufactures became famous. She made conquests on the mainland, and she captured islands at sea.

Venice became one of the richest cities in the world. Her decline set

in when America was discovered, and when the new route to India was found, as told in the story of Vasco da Gama. After varying fortunes in war she eventually lost her independence, and is now a part of the kingdom of Italy. While her citizens were so prosperous they had ample means for making their city beautiful. Her richest residents could not build great military castles, such as our barons and the barons of Germany built. There would not have been room for them in Venice. So they built gorgeous palaces of marble. The Republic, as a body, could not build huge forts, for there was neither need for them nor space on which to erect them. So they devoted their money to erect the most splendid halls, council chambers, palaces for their rulers, museums, libraries and churches.

How Venice rose from the sea

They had very little space on which to build, for the city is made up of very many little islands, with the famous Grand Canal running like a capital S between them, and with over a hundred smaller canals, all bridged at frequent intervals. Therefore, as they could not have a city vast in size, they made one unequaled in beauty.

THE GRAND CANAL DURING A FETE

This is the main artery of traffic in Venice. It is nearly two miles long, and varies from 100 to 200 feet in width. It is adorned with about two hundred magnificent old patrician palaces.

Her widespread trade brought her into relationship with all the civilized world, and she gleaned knowledge from them all. The fall of the Greek Empire sent the learned Greeks to Venice for refuge. They taught the Venetians all that they knew, gave them the treasures of the old writers, and so implanted a love of learning in them that it is to the Venetians that we owe some of our finest literature.

Great works which would have

perished forever were translated by them, and preserved for all the world. The Arabs, who were then among the masters of learning in the world, taught the Venetians how to make gunpowder and how to make glass, and taught them also the first principles of decorative art.

East and west, wherever they went, the Venetians were always learning. In Persia they learned the art of weaving costly fabrics, and gained there a knowledge of architecture.

THE MARBLE BUILDINGS THAT ARE THE GLORY OF VENICE

Their early building combined many styles, which included the elaborate fancy of the East with the sterner simplicity of the northern countries of Europe. But all was so beautifully blended together with a distinct Venetian style, that there was nothing to be found in the world quite like it. In their conquests they destroyed old buildings so that they might have the marble for their own city. They built the inner walls of their palaces and public buildings with brick, but they covered these with slabs of marble.

One of their victories opened the way to rich quarries of red marble near Verona, and with this they were delighted. At about the same time the victory in Padua gave them possession of a hard lime which made mortar to defy the sea-water. These two little things show us how desperately anxious they were to improve their beloved city.

The building of St. Mark's Cathedral afforded work for doge after doge, and generation after generation, for hundreds of years. The square in which the wonderful cathedral stands was formerly a field with a canal running through it, and two churches were built within its boundaries. But these churches were pulled down, and the canal was stopped up to make way for the church built to receive the body of St. Mark.

ST. MARK'S CATHEDRAL, WHICH GREW BEAUTIFUL THROUGH THE CENTURIES

Wherever success attended the armies of Venice, or wherever religious men could buy, other places of worship were deprived of their treasure to enrich the walls of St. Mark's Cathedral. A good example of this we find in the story of the wonderful horses which decorate one end of the exterior of the cathedral.

For century after century the church grew; its shape was altered, its treasures increased, until, in the beginning of the nineteenth century, the great Napoleon conquered Venice, and put an end to the whole work. It possesses one of the richest collections of church plate, and its retable, or altar-piece, called the Pala d'Oro—a marvelous piece of work in gold, jewels, and enamels, which stands behind the altar—is without equal throughout the world.

It is a picture of Christ, attended by archangels and angels and prophets; but the entire work is in precious metal or valuable jewels, and the most beautiful enamel, through which the rich gold setting shines. It was brought from Constantinople in the year 976. The Doge's Palace is another of the wonders of the city, and it is not the less wonderful when we remember that it takes the place of an older building which was pulled down piece by piece to make room for the rising of the new one. It was begun in 1300 by a great doge named Pietro Gradenigo, but before it was finished 150 years had passed away.

THE DUKE WHO PAID A FINE THAT HE MIGHT MAKE VENICE BEAUTIFUL

After nearly a century had passed, the new building had been well advanced, but part of the old palace still

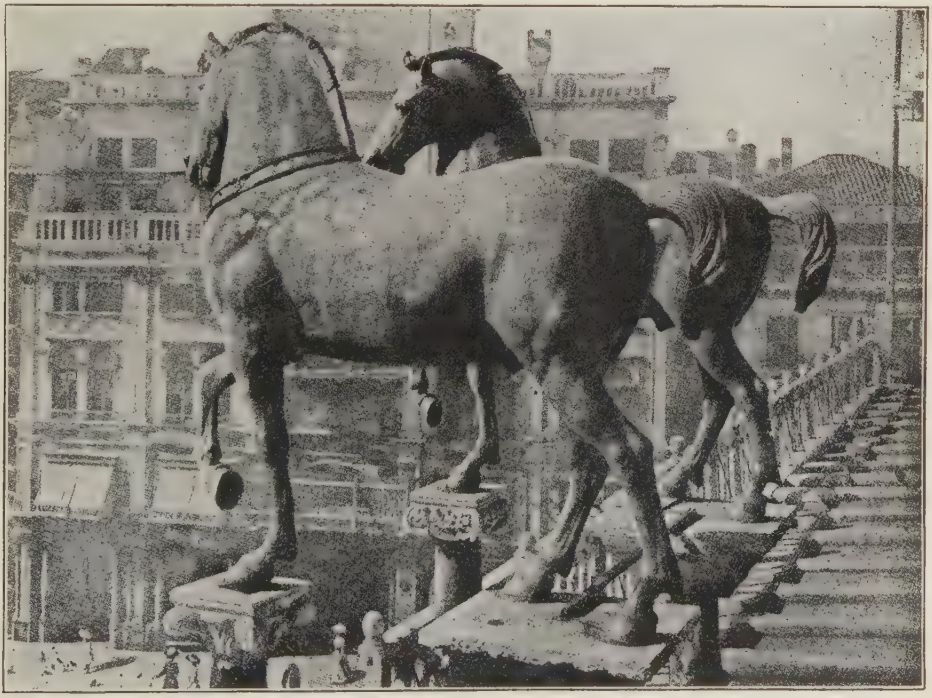
TWO OF THE MANY ARCHITECTURAL GEMS OF VENICE

The Cathedral of St. Mark at Venice, which is facing us in this picture, is one of the glories of Europe. It has been called the church that can neither be described, nor forgotten, and a writer has said that its exquisite architecture makes one glad to be living in this world. As we gaze upon its splendid sculpture, the imagination is bewildered. The great bell-tower collapsed in 1902, but the rebuilding was begun three years later.

The Rialto Bridge derives its name from the ancient part of the city of Venice, on the land at the left of the canal called the Rivo Alto. In this quarter were the warehouses, custom houses and many of the handsomest buildings. Along the footway of the bridge is a long line of shops. The first Bridge of Rialto was built in 1180 and up to this time a bridge of boats had been used.

PICTURES NO VISITOR TO VENICE EVER FORGETS

One of the places that all boys and girls want to go to is the Piazza of San Marco, in Venice—the vast square where all day long thousands of pigeons fly and walk about and feed from one's hands. It is striking to see them fly suddenly up to the eaves, where they look like black specks.



These are two of the four bronze horses that keep guard over the portal of San Marco. These horses, if their eyes could see, would have seen some of the most splendid sights in the history of the world, for they have stood on a triumphal arch in Rome; they were taken away to adorn Constantinople when that city was building; they were carried off by Napoleon to Paris; and they are now set up again in Venice, their former home.

stood. The Venetian Council decreed that things should remain as they were, and that anyone daring to propose any more building of the new palace should be fined 1000 gold ducats. In spite of this, Doge Tomaso Mocenigo did dare to make the proposal. He paid this fine; the rest agreed, and they put the money into the building fund. The enlarging and beautifying of the palace began again in 1424, and did not stop until the work was finished.

It was in connection with this palace that the world-famous Bridge of Sighs was built, but it came more than a century later than the palace. It had been customary to have the State prisons on the ground floor of the Doge's Palace, but in 1588 the Venetians began to build new prisons on the opposite side of the canal. The bridge was made to let the prisoners pass unseen along one passage in it from the prison to the palace, and back by another passage in it to the prison, where their miserable lives would end. The man who built that bridge built also the famous Rialto Bridge, and he was known as Antonio of the Bridge. The Rialto Bridge took him very nearly three years to build, and was finished in 1591.

THE FAMOUS BELL-TOWER THAT FELL AFTER STANDING NEARLY 800 YEARS

It is not easy to point to many notable architectural features of Venice and say that they are the work of such and such a man. Their building took too long, and engaged too many men in successive generations for that. Thus it was with the famous Campanile of St. Mark's, the magnificent bell-tower standing apart from the cathedral. This was ordered by Doge Pietro Tribuno, about the year 900, but not until 1131 was it finished. It was a noble piece of work, famous in all civilized lands. It stood 325 feet in height by 42 feet square. About 600 years passed away before the well-known great summit, or lantern, with its pyramid roof, was added. They built well in those days, for the Campanile stood until 1902, then, through gradual decay, it fell to the ground. The Venetians have since rebuilt it upon the old foundations.

One name stands out among these oldtime architects which we must not overlook—the name of Fra Giovanni Giocondo, who was born at Verona, Italy, in about the middle of the fifteenth century, and died at Rome in 1514. He was a scholar and student all his days, as well as a gifted architect, and many famous men were numbered among his pupils. He traveled a great deal, and worked where he stayed.

Thus he built a fine bridge and a palace in Paris; he made a design for the building of St. Peter's at Rome, and he gave Venice some of her noblest palaces. It is sad to think that one of the most perfect products of his art, one of the smaller Venetian palaces, came in our day to be used as a wretched warehouse.

A GLORIOUS PALACE THAT WAS PLANNED IN THE MIDST OF WARS

Another of the men of this era was Michele Sanmichele, who was trained in the school of Bramante, a great artist, whom we meet among the makers of Rome. Sanmichele, like so many other men of artistic genius, was also a soldier, and the work of fortifying cities engaged in the wars of the period occupied more of his time than art. He managed to build some palaces for Venice, however, the time being about 1550. One of them still retains its glory. It was called the Palace of Grimeni, but is now used as one of the courts of justice, and remains a monument to the man who planned it amid wars and rumors of wars.

A world of sentiment has circled around the beautiful Bridge of Sighs at Venice, which connects the State Prisons with the Doge's Palace.

A greater architect than Sanmichele then arose in the person of Jacopo Sansovino, who was born at Florence in 1477, and lived in Venice from 1527 up to his death in 1570. Several churches stand to his credit in Venice, but the work which immortalized him was the building of the famous library of San Marco, and the Mint, which adjoins it. He built them at the same time, joining wall against wall, to form the most striking contrast. The library now called the Royal Palace, is one of the sights of the city—a building of great size in two stories, each supported by a series of arches of the greatest beauty.

Next followed a man to whom English architecture owes much. This was Andrea Palladio, who was born at Vicenza in 1518, and died there when sixty-two. He gave practically all his life to beautifying Venice. He built splendid churches and other edifices, but not palaces. He loved space for his work, and to rear buildings distinguished by dignity and simplicity. He went back to the best Roman style, and was the founder of modern architecture in Italy. He wrote on architecture, and his most important work came into the hands of Inigo Jones, one of the greatest of English architects, whom it greatly influenced.

We must leave the story of the architecture, and turn for a moment to the sculpture. This art in Venice remained chiefly a part of architecture. The architect was sculptor, too. The reasons were twofold. In the first place, the city clung to the examples of the East, which did not provide statues apart from buildings. In the second place, there was a strong desire to keep such open spaces as there were in Venice free from statues.

ANDREA PISANO, SCULPTOR

So little was the art of the sculptor encouraged that several of the doges in the Middle Ages were buried in tombs carved in the East hundreds of years before. However, Andrea Pisano, one of the great workers of Florence set an example in the fourteenth century which Venetian sculptors were to follow. The seed thus sown grew slowly, but surely, and from Pisano's day the sculptural work of Venice became more important.

Instead of bringing sculptural decorations from other lands, as they had been in the habit of doing, the Venetians encouraged their own citizens, or, at any rate, men resident in their midst. The first sculptors of note were the Masegne family, who lived in the fourteenth century and the earlier half of the fifteenth century. Next came Pietro Niccolo, of Florence, and Giovanni di Martino, of Fiesole, who worked together and produced, among other works, a fine tomb for the doge who had insisted on continuing the building of the Doge's Palace. They had a fine wooden statue of John the Baptist, from Donatello; and Antonio Rizzo, who acted as one of the architects of the Doge's Palace, and also carried out important military engineering work, proved himself a gifted sculptor, only he ruined himself by dishonesty, and had to flee the city.

A GIFTED FAMILY OF SCULPTORS AND PAINTERS

Much excellent sculptural work was done by the Lombardo family—the Lombardi, as they are called. Not much is known of their history, though Lombardi works are numerous in Venice. The best known of the family was Pietro Lombardo, who died in the first half of the sixteenth century. He had three skilful sons, named Tullio, Antonio, and Giulio; and there were two other Lombardi known to Venice: Sante Lombardo and Moro Lombardo.

All the Lombardi were sculptors or painters. In the workshops of the Lombardi many other sculptors received their training, among them being Alessandro Leopardi, whose name is familiar to every visitor to Venice. Born in the latter half of the fifteenth century, he died about 1545, but his fame remains fresh. Two things make him always notable—the majestic flagstaffs which rise in front of St. Mark's, and the work which he did in connection with the statue of Bartolommeo Colleoni, a famous soldier of Venice who lived in the fifteenth century.

Colleoni's deeds of war are of no account today; he is of no more importance to the world than if he had never lived, but he is of interest as having called forth a supreme work of art. He gained great wealth from the wars, and at his death he left all his money and horses and arms to the State, on the condition that they should raise a statue to his memory.

How a forger was called back to venice to cast a famous statue

The Venetians faithfully carried out their part of the bargain. Although Venetian sculpture was making progress, they could not trust one of their own citizens to do this work. They sent to Florence for Andrea del Verrocchio, who was famous as painter, sculptor, and goldsmith, and memorable to us as a teacher of Leonardo da Vinci. He was born in 1435, and was forty-four when sent for to make the Colleoni statue. He — Verrocchio — had only nine years to live and we might fancy that he realized that this was to be the last and greatest work of his life.

He devoted to the task all his strength and skill and art, but death overtook him before he could make the bronze casting of the statue of horse and rider. He finished the model and died. Venice had upon her hands the finest model of a horse and rider that had ever been made in the history of the world, but who was to cast it and set it up for all time? There was only one man—Alessandro Leopardi. But he had fallen into evil ways, and some years before had been driven from the city as a forger and criminal. In their need they recalled him, and told him to make the casting.

He atoned for his sin by the way in which he executed the task. He produced a splendid work from Verrocchio's model. The pedestal he modeled and made himself, and it worthily combines in every way with the horse and rider.

One of the noblest monuments ever set up on the earth

The statue is still without comparison. Horse and man seem alive. Mr. Ruskin thought it one of the noblest monuments ever set up on the face of the earth. Colleoni rides with defiant features, proud in his strength as a man, fierce and disdainful in his skill as a general. The horse moves heavily, but with great strength, as upon some dreadful battle field. Leopardi was not satisfied with the fame which the pedestal gave him, but wrote his name upon the girth of the horse, as though the whole design were his. But nothing can rob Verrocchio of the honor of modeling one of the greatest masterpieces in the world.

But, after all, the great splendor and wonder of Venice belong to her paintings. There never was another place where such a glorious kingdom of pictorial art grew up. Venice is as supreme in this respect as she is for the beauty of her situation and buildings. Her supremacy was not soon won. For a long time she had painters of no special merit—men who painted, not in oils, but in distemper. These pictures were not like life, nor did they

express any high ideal. It was just the bad old Italian art that they represented, dull, wooden-looking pictures done in churches and on the walls of other buildings. Then the Bellini family arose, and with them came new light. The glory of Venetian art dawned with them. They began to paint finely in distemper before ever the art of oil-painting had been heard of in Venice.

How the glory of art in Venice dawned with the Bellini family

The improvement began with Jacopo Bellini, who was born probably about 1400, and died about 1464. Jacopo was a pupil of a famous artist named Gentile da Fabriano, a native of Fabriano, who died at Rome about the year 1428. Jacopo followed his master to Florence, where he met all the great men of the time.

He had two sons. The first, born in 1429, he named Gentile, after his old master. The younger son, born in 1430, he named Giovanni. Jacopo never became a great artist himself. His work was an improvement upon anything ever done before in Venice, but his chief credit is that he was the father of two notable sons, who carried out his own splendid ideas.

They worked together with him, and all the young artists of Venice who desired to become great in their art flocked to their studio to become pupils. Giorgione and Titian were of the number. Gentile Bellini painted scenes from the life of Venice; Giovanni Bellini painted religious subjects as Venice had never before seen them painted. Gentile painted portraits, and gained such fame that he was sent for by the Sultan of Turkey to paint his portrait at Constantinople.

The savage act of a cruel man

Gentile went and painted a famous picture of the cruel man who then ruled over Turkey. This wretch one day wished to show that Bellini had not correctly painted the head of John the Baptist after death, so he drew his sword and cut off the head of a slave standing near. So horrified was the artist that he never rested until he got back to Venice.

But a great change had now come over the art of Venice. An artist named Antonello, of Messina, appeared in Venice, bringing with him a new art. He had learned from Hubert and Jan van Eyck, the great Flemish artists, their secret of painting with colors mixed with oils. Let us look for a moment at a scene painted for the stage of a theater; it is done in distemper, the medium in which the artists of Venice had been working. Then let us remember one of the oil-paintings at the National Gallery, London which is the style of work that Antonello introduced. It set all the people in Venice wondering.

How the precious secret of painting in oils became known in Venice

The story runs that Giovanni Bellini went in disguise to Antonello to have his portrait painted, solely that he might learn for himself the great secret. Whatever the truth of this story, we know that the grand secret was soon mastered in Venice, and that the Bellinis were the first to help make it famous by their work. Venice was now glorified by many brilliant works of the brothers. They had the happiness, too, of seeing young artists promising to become even greater than themselves growing up about them.

But the Venetian authorities feared that death would come too soon and carry off Giovanni Bellini before his work for them was done. Though they paid very poorly for the work, they loved his art, and were determined to get as much out of him as possible.

They therefore decreed that he should work every day in one of the great state apartments which he was decorating, and that he should have assistants.

These young men had only four or five ducats a month as payment, and the great Titian was one of the workmen appointed as painters on these terms.

How Venice treated the mighty Titian. A story of Carpaccio

The document stating the terms of his engagement refers to him with as little ceremony as if he were a poor man called in to whitewash a ceiling. He became one of the greatest painters of all time. The mighty genius of Titian could never have developed in the way that it did had not Jacopo Bellini and his two illustrious sons given a new turn to the world of art.

One of the first of the new school of artists to be influenced by the Bellinis was Vittore Carpaccio. He was born in Istria, about 1450, and lived seventy-two years. We have seen how the idea of painting scenes from life began to take the place of pictures which had been painted again and again in the same old flat style. Carpaccio carried on the work in the noblest way. Some of the painters of his age took subjects from heathen books for their pictures. Carpaccio painted beautiful stories upon his canvases. His pictures told the story of the lives of saints and heroes; they were made to appeal to the mind and the soul, not, like some others, merely to the eye.

Like many other artists of that age, he was always comparatively poor, and we find a curious letter, written by him to a rich nobleman, describing a picture of Jerusalem which he wished to sell. The picture, he says, was twenty-five feet high and five and one-half feet wide, and, in order that it could be inspected, he wished to send it to the nobleman, "rolled round a piece of wood." Fancy an artist having to send a picture to an academy rolled around wood instead of being packed flat!

A wonderful artist who died young in a wonderful age

Another great man arose in these days. Soon after the birth of Titian—that is, in 1477—Giorgione was born. As Giotto perfected the changes introduced by Cimabué, his master, into Florentine art, so Giorgione ennobled the art schemes of his masters, the Bellini family. Giorgione not only enriched the city by his wonderful frescoes and other paintings, but had a most powerful influence upon the artists of his own day—upon Titian among them, and upon the artists who followed. Unlike several of the men of his day, Giorgione did not attain a great age, dying, all too soon, when only thirty-three.

This was a wonderful age for Venice. Every rich man was willing to employ artists. They may not have paid well, but there was no very serious competition. And we find Giorgione, and Titian, and others, painting lovely works on articles of furniture, and other artists rivaling the goldsmiths in the splendor with which they decorated the outside of buildings with the glories of the brush.

Much talent was wasted in this way. Some of the artists would do anything for money. Titian was, perhaps, the most grasping of them all. We cannot but admire his works, but the nature of the man was in some respects detestable. This mean nature was never more apparent than in his treatment of another great man, Tintoretto, to whom we now come. His real name was Jacopo Robusti, and he was born at Venice in 1518, and died in 1594. His father was a dyer—

a tintore—and so they called Jacopo, his son, Tintoretto, or Tintorettino, meaning "the little dyer." The clever boy was a born artist.

The boy who daubed the walls and became a famous painter

He used to dabble in his father's dyes, and to splash the colors all over the walls and furniture until his parents must have found him a nuisance. Seeing which way the lad's genius was inclined the father took him to the studio of Titian. Jacopo's apprenticeship lasted but a few days.

Titian went into the studio one morning and saw, lying on the floor, papers covered with drawings. He picked them up, and asked who had done them. Little Tintoretto shyly confessed that he had. Titian saw that they were the work of a genius; he saw that this boy might soon become a rival to himself. He left the studio at once, and that same day had the poor boy turned out.

It was a shameful thing, but brave young Tintoretto was not to be beaten. His life became a miracle of activity. He set before himself two models—Michaelangelo for design; Titian, his cruel master, for color. Wherever he could see a work by either of these two he studied it. He copied antique statues. He made numberless drawings to perfect his style. He studied the human frame as a whole and in its various parts.

How Tintoretto painted priceless pictures on the walls of houses

He made models of wax on which to hang draperies for the figures he meant to paint. He copied tombstones and bits of broken statuary. He studied the methods of every artist in every studio into which he dared to peep. He went down into the square where the poor painters worked who painted common furniture and cabinets for sale, and studied how they got some of their effects. He followed the work of architects. He used to beg builders to let him decorate houses which they were erecting.

Once he painted designs all round a clock which the builders were erecting in a tower. Another builder was putting up a new house, and Tintoretto insisted on painting the walls with lovely frescoes, simply for the cost of the materials he used. He would do paintings for chapels and churches and other buildings for practically nothing.

A masterpiece that was painted on a ceiling in a few days

He did anything and everything to perfect his art and make his name known. He worked with marvelous speed, and, of course, the effect was not always good. But in time he made a very great name, and became one of the five greatest painters of all time. One story must suffice to show his passion for work and the marvelous way in which he carried it out.

The ceiling of the San Rocco School was to be decorated with a painting and the artists of Venice were asked to send in sketches for the work. There were not many days for the preparation. The other artists made their rough plans. Not so Tintoretto. He had the space measured and, with that zeal and speed which nobody could match, he painted his whole picture, and had it secretly fixed up on the ceiling and covered over.

When the day of trial came, the others showed their sketches, while Tintoretto stood by. At last he drew away the linen covering the ceiling, and the company saw his splendid picture already fixed.

Everybody was amazed. The authorities, when they recovered their breath, protested that they had asked only for designs not for a finished picture.

THE WONDERFUL PAINTING THAT MADE THE AUTHORITIES OF VENICE ANGRY

The other artists, however, examined the work, and seeing how great and exquisite it was, they withdrew from the competition. The authorities, however, were very angry indeed, and still grumbled furiously.

"Oh, very well; there is the picture!" said Tintoretto. "If you will not pay me for it, then I will make it a present to the saints."

After that the city authorities calmed down and, deciding that the work was one of rare merit, they at last agreed to pay the artist fairly for it.

The last of the greatest Venetian painters was Paul Veronese. He was born in 1528 at Verona, whence his title, his real name being Caliara, or Cagliari. He lived in Venice from 1555 till his death in 1588. His pictures were characterized by the brilliance of coloring proper to works of the great Venetian school, but he had caught the spirit of painters in Rome, and gave to his work more dignity, grace of pose, and ease of movement than had been possible before his day.

Paul Veronese was a painter more for the palace than the church. His scenes were scenes of splendor, of great space and riches and luxury, so that it has been said that one of his paintings would convert a garret into a palace of vast size and delight. He was a great worker, but different in type from Tintoretto, taking careful pains with all that he painted.

THE GLORY THAT HAS GONE FROM VENICE AND THE GLORY THAT REMAINS

In the Louvre at Paris there hangs his picture called "The Marriage Feast at Cana," showing no fewer than 160 portraits of people who lived in Venice in his day. The strange thing is that this painter of splendor and palaces should, like Tintoretto and Titian, have painted frescoes on the outside of houses which faded away and disappeared under the influence of the weather while the artists themselves were still alive.

With the death of Paul Veronese, the sun of Venetian art set. But the afterglow has lighted the world for more than three hundred years, firing the enthusiasm of all the artists who have lived since.

While the glory of Venice as a maritime power, holding a great part of the commerce of the world in her hand, and forming a link between the East and the West, is departed forever, the more lasting glory which attaches to her as a patron of the highest and best art will never die. So long as Venice and her pictures last, they will remain the greatest treasures in the world, guiding and inspiring the artists who see them, and making our modern artists realize the influence which those beautiful and wonderful pictures have had upon the art of the whole world from the day that they were painted until the present.

WHY ALL THE WORLD GOES TO VENICE

How should one write of Venice? Venice is a city, for centuries a kingdom, that has grown up on the dust of the Alps, brought down by the rivers and cast into the sea. Into these islands men drove huge piles, upon which they built magnificent palaces.

They went on building until the islands were crowded, until scores of islands were linked by hundreds of bridges, and this wonder-city, rising from the sea, with the waves beating all around it, with the sea surging through its streets and into its houses at every highest tide, served as a central magnet, attracting to itself great dreamers and workers from the cities around.

Here came painters and sculptors and poets and preachers and builders

and workers in mosaic such as never before came together in the history of the world. Here, even long after the ruin of Venice, came Byron and Browning and Ruskin and Wagner. Wherever you go, are treasures of art declaring for all time the everlasting majesty of man.

And all through the centuries in which men have been building up this glory, Venice was growing in political power.

What the sea did for Venice

The influence of the sea, Mr. Ruskin has pointed out, is a marvelous example of the way in which Nature shapes history. Think of Venice if the sea had washed away the dust of the Alps as the rivers brought it down: there would have been, in that case, no Venice to think of. Think of the tide a few inches higher or a few inches lower; in either case it would have made access to the houses impossible, and there would thus have been no Venice again. If the sea had made these waterways broader and deeper there would have been a Venice, no doubt, but not the Venice we know, for the navies of strong powers would have sailed up these canals, depriving Venice of both her isolation and independence, and therefore of her artistic pre-eminence, because her energies would have been diverted into other and less fruitful channels. If the canals had been so narrow and shallow that they had received no tide at all, they would have become so offensive that life would have been impossible; and if the surges had been stronger, the whole character of Venice would have been changed, because, instead of dainty palaces, she must have built strong sea-walls, and spent most of her energy in keeping back the sea.

A city not made with hands

But more inclined should we be to give honor to the little armies of devoted men who, through the centuries, have added stone to stone until this wondrous monument of human genius has arisen out of the waves. What builders they were! What dreams they dreamed! They worked better, perhaps, than they knew; or they worked well because they loved their work.

How life seems in Venice

But there is a life, and an atmosphere of Venice, which are wonderful to see and feel. Were you ever in a town where, with all the space and business of ordinary town life, there has been no noise save the voices of men and women, the flight of birds, and the splashing of oars? Not a horse, a train, a cab, a street car or automobile may be seen.

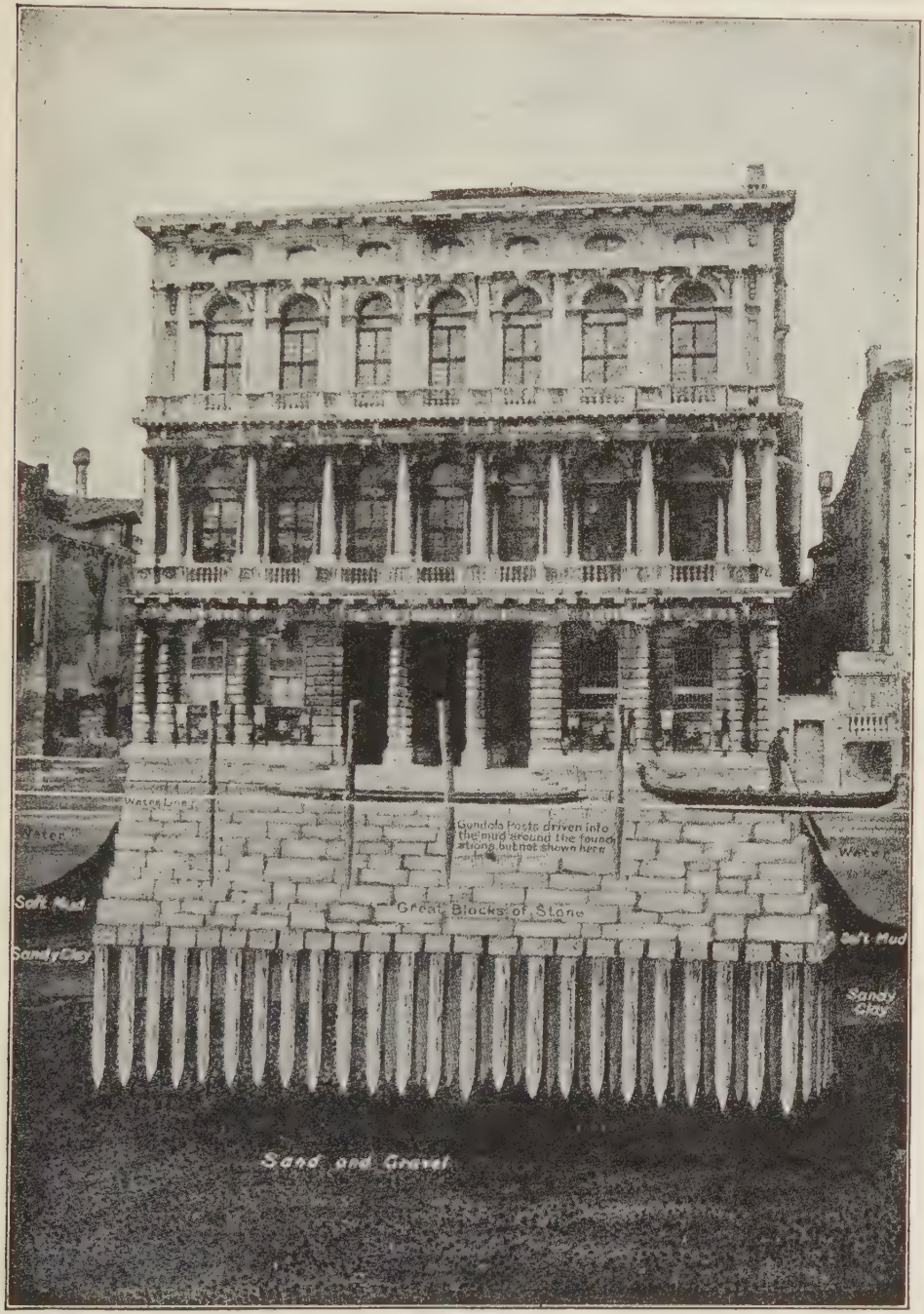
There are people here who have never seen a horse; it may be true that no horse's hoof has ever been heard in this city's streets—though Ruskin says that the bronze horse on which the soldier Colleoni sits is one of the noblest horses ever sculptured on the earth; and though there stand, over the central portals of San Marco, four of the most famous bronze horses in the world.

The horses above San Marco

They were made, it is claimed, by an unknown artist of Corinth, and set up nearly 2000 years ago. Nero saw them, and took them to Rome to adorn his triumphal arch. Constantine took them to his capital when he set up a new Rome at Constantinople. From here they were sent back to Venice, but once again were removed, this time by Napoleon to Paris. After Napoleon's fall the horses were returned to San Marco. These four horses, therefore, have helped to make beautiful four of the greatest cities in the history of the world.

But in the square upon which they look down today no horse is ever seen,

HOW VENICE IS ANCHORED IN THE SEA



This picture shows how Venice is built in the sea. Wooden piles were driven into the sea-bed, and on these was built a wooden platform to form a base for the blocks of stone which form the foundations of the palaces. This picture shows the palace where Robert Browning lived and died, with an imaginary view of the foundations. The mud and clay are supposed to be removed from the front of the piles.

no sign of traffic such as we find wherever else we go.

Is there anywhere else in the world such a place for children as the Piazza of San Marco, the great square across which the Campanile fell one sunny morning a number of years ago. (It has since been rebuilt.) Nowhere else in the world, perhaps, can we make friends with hundreds of birds in a minute. How many pigeons there are, certainly nobody knows. They seem to have been here always, flying about in this huge square.

The story of the pigeons

It is said that for six hundred years there have been pigeons in the square. An old story tells how Venice was besieged by an enemy, whose forces were knit so closely around its gates that no messenger could get through. The people of Venice were starving; so little food was there in the city that the pigeons in the bell-towers had to fly for food to the mainland. Outside was an army coming to the relief of Venice, and the commander, catching a number of pigeons, tied notes to their feet, and so let the suffering people know that help was at hand. Venice was then able to hold out until the friendly army could enter, and ever since, the people have kept the pigeons at the public expense, in memory of their service to the city. It is quite easy to see that there are more than a thousand of them, and to see them, all at the same moment, rise from the ground and fly across the square is a sight that the traveler never forgets. Some little thing that has happened—nobody knows quite what—will set this host of birds in flight. A single movement of a child, perhaps, or some queer sound that our own ears do not catch, and a thousand pigeons are flapping their wings in the air with quite a startling sound. Yet certainly it is not fear, for the pigeons of Venice have no fear. Nobody ever harmed a single one of them. At the corner of the square sits a man with his sacks of peas and corn, making little bags all day long, and filling them and all day long boys and girls, and men and women, buy the corn and throw it to the birds. A handful of corn thrown on to the ground, and a hundred birds are at your feet.

A hundred things are here unlike all other cities. Climb to a great height in London, in Paris, in Cairo, in Athens, in Milan, almost anywhere, and the thing that comes first into the vision is the animated scene, the little people in the streets, the toy traffic on the bridges, horses and automobiles, and the whole world as seen through a telescope turned the wrong way. Things are not like that in Venice.

Look down from a high tower, and you look upon a city of quiet. Not a street is to be seen, not one particle of this great island scene is moving. Closely packed with houses and churches, built high and so near together that you can shake hands across many streets, the eye cannot pick out, from above, a single canal, not one of those four hundred bridges; even the Grand Canal, the chief waterway that divides Venice in two halves like a big S turned round, winds its way among palaces so tall that from a distant height it cannot be seen. And so the result is an image of a silent city, fitting impression of Venice, even now. The chisels of the sculptors, the hammers of the builders, are no more. The great marble palaces belong to the past that has gone. All but a few of them are workshops. The visitor of today must be endowed with imagination if he would see them as they were. Yet Venice is still the "Queen of the Adriatic" and a memorable city to the art lover.

BUILDERS OF FLORENCE

THERE are four or five places in Europe to which all travelers desire to make their way. They wish to see Paris, with its noble boulevards, its handsome buildings, and all the attractions which give Paris its special distinction. But the man who loves beauty in repose, the grandeur of sculpture, the dreams of genius, fixed in stone, this man longs for the days which will take him to Florence, to Venice, and to Rome.

The great architects and sculptors and painters of Florence and Venice and Rome were many. They were for the most part men in humble positions and they loved the tasks to which their lives were devoted. To create beautiful buildings and sculpture was to these men something quite in the ordinary business of life. They did not always realize the splendor of their work. They gave the best of their talent, but gave it simply, without fuss or boast, seldom dreaming, perhaps, how future generations would marvel at their achievements.

If we stand amazed now at the beauty of these cities of Italy, we are not less surprised when we recall how these beauties were brought into existence. The cities were already old and well established, when it was decided to rid them of their ugliness, and to clothe their streets and squares with grandeur. It was a right and natural ambition, of course; but the wonderful thing is that the cities found ready, in the course of no very long time, the men capable of carrying out, in the best possible way, the high ideals from which the search for beauty grew. Architects and sculptors arose whose works have seldom been excelled in the history of the world. Many of them sprang from such humble circumstances that we do not know their early history.

How Arnolfo Began the Great Work of Making Florence Beautiful

One of these men of humble birth is Arnolfo di Cambio. We meet him first in the company of a band of workmen who were engaged with him at work in the cathedral of Siena. He was still a young man, having been born about 1232. With him was a man named Lapo, whom he sometimes called his father and sometimes called his teacher. All these workmen were skilful artists, going from town to

PONTE VECCHIO IN FLORENCE

The Vecchio Bridge spans the Arno River. It dates back to 1355. The rows of goldsmiths' shops show an interesting example of the old custom of using bridges for trade.

town in Italy, beautifying existing buildings or putting up new ones. It was Arnolfo that Florence chose to begin her great work of beautifying the city. The young workman became suddenly renowned as an architect and sculptor, and while similar tasks were being attempted in the neighboring cities, he went swiftly to work to give Florence some of the buildings which to this day help to make her famous.

He was the father of her architecture. He surrounded the city with stately walls, he built her noble cathedral and two of her most beautiful churches, and he planned the famous public palace of the city, where the governors of Florence held their meetings. But Arnolfo could not finish all the great works that he began. He died in 1300, leaving something for those who followed to complete.

How Cimabue Began Painting Pictures and Found Giotto Minding Sheep

While Arnolfo was creating wonders in stone, a Florentine named Giovanni Cimabue, born in 1240, was adding to her pictorial treasures. The art of painting had at this time fallen very low in Italy. Foreigners, who all copied bad models, ruled the world of art. Cimabue began, as other young artists began, by copying these unsatisfactory models. Soon, however, his independence made him strike out for himself, and to paint men and women and the things about him as they really seemed. Because he tried truly to paint as he saw things he is honored with the title of the Father of Modern Painting. He died two years after Arnolfo, in 1302. But before he died he had trained a greater than himself to succeed him. This was Giotto di Bondone, always called simply Giotto.

Giotto was born in, or about 1276, the son of a poor peasant at Vespignano, near Florence. While he was still a little boy, Giotto was placed by his father with some shepherds to earn his living by watching the flocks. Giotto may have been a loving shepherd, but he loved art better. Without ever having had a lesson, he used to give all his leisure to drawing on the rocks with pieces of chalk. While the boy was thus engaged one day making a skilful drawing of a sheep, Cimabue found him. The great artist, pleased at the boy's industry and talent, asked if he would like to go home with him and learn to paint. Permission having been gained from the boy's father, Giotto was taken to Florence and instructed by his good friend. Giotto proved a ready pupil. He learned all that Cimabue could teach him, and proved better than his master.

Giotto, the Laughing Artist who Talked Merrily with the King

Cimabue had paved the way for a great change in the methods of artists; Giotto was really the first to give it expression. He was about twenty-four when he gained a very important commission. This was to paint a picture of Paradise over a church altar. An interesting thing happened about this. Dante, the great poet of Florence, was at this time living in his native city, and had shown himself a friend of the young artist. So, as Giotto sat perched high up on his little platform near the roof of the church, he thought of what he owed the poet, and showed his gratitude by painting a beautiful portrait of Dante among the angel faces of his picture. That portrait is the finest of the great poet that we have, for it was painted before sorrow and care had marred the noble features of Dante.

Giotto's talent was speedily recognized. He was paid to do paintings for the famous church in which St. Francis of Assisi is buried; for

FLORENCE AS A CENTER OF ARTISTIC CULTURE IN THE TIME OF THE MEDICI

churches at Padua, Verona, Naples and elsewhere, and for many in Florence.

Wherever he went he was always the simple laughing peasant turned artist. He had a merry jest for everybody, whether it was king or clown. Said a king who employed him: "I wouldn't work upon that scaffold this hot day if I were you." "Nor would I if I were you," answered the laughing artist.

The beautiful tower of Giotto that stands in the streets of Florence

When he was an old man, only three years from the grave, Giotto was made master of the public works of Florence, and given charge of the building of the cathedral, left incomplete, as we have seen, by the death of Arnolfo, thirty years before. Not only had Giotto now to superintend the work of others; he had to create, with measuring instrument, with hammer and chisel, as he had been wont to create with his paints and brushes. He was called upon to design a campanile, a tower in which to hang bells. He did the work with as light a heart as if it were an everyday occurrence. He planned and designed one of the most beautiful towers ever built. It is one of the marvels and beauties of Florence today, and visitors are proud to bring away from Florence bronze models of it. Not only did Giotto plan it, he worked with mallet and chisel at some of the carvings which adorn it. One of the carvings represents a little puppy, a puppy which he had loved as a child when minding the sheep, and had remembered, years afterward, when he was one of the most famous men in Italy.

The beloved Giotto passed to his rest in 1337, but in Florence were found three other wonderful men. These were Filippo Brunelleschi, born in 1377; Lorenzo Ghiberti, born in 1378; and Donato Di Betto Bardi, called Donatello, born in 1386.

The Gates for Which All Italy's Artists Made Plans

The first two came into prominence when Ghiberti was about twenty-four, and then met as friendly rivals. Ghiberti was of poor family. We know nothing about his father, but we hear of his stepfather, an excellent man, named Bartoluccio, who instructed young Ghiberti in his art as a goldsmith, then did a wise thing by sending the lad traveling, to enlarge his knowledge of art, and, at the same time, to earn his living.

Ghiberti was a wonderful fellow. When he was not painting pictures he was modeling in wax, or making figures in bronze, or doing something with trinkets. Before he turned his face homeward, he had earned fame by painting some fine frescoes in a palace at Rimini. He was working at Pesaro when he received a letter from his stepfather telling him that all the most skilful artists in Italy were summoned to show their genius in designing gates of bronze for the famous church of San Giovanni, the church to which all the children of Florence were then, as now, taken to be christened. Here was Ghiberti's chance. He needed not his stepfather's bidding to hasten home; so anxious was he to reach Florence that the journey seemed to him, as he said, like a thousand years. He drew his plan, and sent it in to take its place with the designs of the most famous men of the time.

The great chance of Ghiberti's life and the use he made of it

Among the other competitors was young Filippo Brunelleschi. He was a lawyer's son, and his father had desired him to follow the law. But Filippo early gave his heart to the work of the goldsmith, and dearly he hoped now to win the prize. When

the designs were exhibited he took with him his humble young friend, Donatello. They examined them all, and saw that Brunelleschi's was better than all save that of Ghiberti, which was superior to all the rest. And so the judges found. Ghiberti was ordered to undertake the work; this young wandering workman of twenty-four was chosen before all the other artists who competed.

This proved to be the work of Ghiberti's life. The first pair of gates took twenty years to make, and the second pair, even longer. Thus fifty years of his career were given to the work, which was not finished until Brunelleschi was already in his grave. But while Ghiberti was doing the gates with the assistance of a staff of artist-workmen, he was engaged in other labors, too. He did some beautiful work for two or three churches of Florence, as well as for the cathedral; he modeled fine statues, and did some beautiful goldsmith's work.

THE GATES THAT MICHAELANGELO SAID WERE FIT TO BE THE GATES OF HEAVEN

Ghiberti was even given part share with Brunelleschi of the building work at the cathedral, but here as a builder he was a failure. Brunelleschi could not work with him, and had to refuse to go on unless Ghiberti were kept to work of his own; and, even when they were able to give him his own work, Ghiberti was found to be incompetent for building, and was removed. His grandest monument is the wonderful pair of gates, which for mingled grace and grandeur are finer than anything else of the sort in existence. Michaelangelo declared that they were fit to be the gates of heaven. Ghiberti loved the work, and he gave the best of his life to it. Though its progress was so slow, all the most exalted people in Florence were interested in it. In those days Florence was an unlighted city at night, save for the torches which people carried, and everybody not specially authorized had to be indoors by nightfall. But Ghiberti, though no higher in rank than the rest of the common people, became a public character when he began the gates, and he and all his workpeople were allowed to walk about the streets and to carry lanterns, at whatever hour of the night they liked—a rare privilege indeed in those days.

It was well for Filippo Brunelleschi that he did not get permission to make the gates, for there was other important work for him to do, even greater in some respects than Ghiberti's.

HOW BRUNELLESCHI BUILT THE DOME THAT IS STILL THE GLORY OF FLORENCE

Having failed in his contest with Ghiberti, he went off to Rome to indulge his passion for architectural drawing. He had already sketched every building in Florence, and he longed to make a new drawing showing how Arnolfo's grand cathedral could be completed by the addition of a dome. So at Rome he studied all the great buildings. He made drawings of them; he noted how they were constructed, how beauty was combined with strength, and lightness with mass. In order that he might have money to live on, he would work during the day for the goldsmiths, then at night go on with the drawings of his beloved buildings. Never did a man more thoroughly train himself for a task than did young Filippo for the dome of the Florence Cathedral.

At last, in 1407, when he was thirty years of age, he returned to Florence, and offered to the city authorities plans for the building of a dome. It took the wise men of Florence thirteen years to come to a decision. In that time

LORENZO GHIBERTI'S "GATES OF PARADISE"

In the open streets of Florence hang these wondrous gates. They are the main gates of the little baptistry which was the chief church in Florence before the great cathedral, now facing it, was built They are, perhaps, the most famous gates in the world, and they took nearly thirty years to build They were designed and carried out by Lorenzo Ghiberti, who began them in 1425 and finished them in 1452 Michaelangelo thought them fit to be the gates of Paradise, and they are among the most wonderful things in a wonderful city.

every sort of objection was raised, and everybody's opinion was taken. Other artists made designs, and the wildest of schemes were suggested for carrying out the work. But in the end Brunelleschi gained the day, and was told to carry out his plans. His one sorrow was that Ghiberti, who now stood high up in public favor, was to share the labor with him. Brunelleschi knew that Ghiberti was quite incapable of architecture and that is why he did not wish him to share in the work.

The dome took over forty years to build, and Brunelleschi had been fifteen years in his grave when it was completed. But his plans were so perfect, his methods so excellent, and his personal labors during the last twenty-six years of his life so persistent, that the faithful band of workers who followed him had but to carry to the obvious end what he had begun, to make his work one of the grandest features in the architecture of Europe.

THE MERRY DONATELLO AND HIS WONDERFUL FIGURES IN STONE

So far we have met Donatello only by name. He was the young friend who went with Brunelleschi to see Ghiberti's drawing for the gates. He was one of the merriest fellows, and perhaps it was because of the youth's sunny nature that Brunelleschi who was nine years older, became his friend and companion. Donatello was the son of a wool merchant, who apprenticed him to a man who is supposed to have been Ghiberti's stepfather. At any rate, the boy learned, like Brunelleschi, the goldsmith's art, and going to Rome with his friend, was able to support himself there by his skill in working in metals.

While Brunelleschi was studying the classic architecture of Rome, Donatello was studying the statuary. He had not his friend's capacity for great schemes and buildings, but he had just as fine a genius, and though he laughed and joked his way through life, he was destined to become Italy's greatest sculptor of later times, and the father of modern sculpture.

Before he went to Rome as a boy of fifteen he had carved a crucifix in wood, a statue of Mary Magdalene, and a marble statue of St. John, each of which may still be seen in Florence today. When he returned from the Eternal City, as Rome is called, he was twenty-one, and a finished sculptor.

DONATELLO'S STATUES FOR GIOTTO'S TOWER AND HIS FIGURE OF ST. GEORGE

Giotto's tower still needed some decoration, and Donatello was one of the sculptors engaged to complete it. He carved for it a lifelike figure called Zuccone, and as he gazed upon his finished work he took up his mallet, and, giving the statue a playful tap, said to it: "Speak!" Michaelangelo, who was not born until nine years after the death of Donatello, saw one of the famous statues. This was the wonderful figure of St. George, clad in mail, looking as if it is ready to step down from its pedestal and do battle against wrong-doing and evil. And as Michaelangelo looked, he remembered what Donatello had said to Zuccone, and he himself now shouted: "March!" Could there be a finer compliment to a great sculptor's work?

All Donatello's statues are famous. They are beautiful in themselves, but they are important because of the effect they have had upon later sculpture. He had closely studied the glorious work of the ancients, and he reproduced their methods, stamped with his own genius. Until his day, men had been content to let the statues they carved be part of the buildings to which they belonged, as a cornice or a scroll is part of a build-

LOOKING DOWN A FAMOUS FLORENTINE STREET

We have in this picture one of the most striking glimpses of the streets of Florence. On the right and left are the long corridors of the famous Uffizi Gallery, full of priceless paintings, and beyond, rising to a marvelous height, is the wonderful Vecchio Palace, built of huge stones hundreds of years ago. Here Lorenzo the Magnificent held his luxurious court, patronizing painters and sculptors; here, in a little cell at the top of the tower, Savonarola, the eloquent monk who preached to the Florentines, spent his last night on earth. In the niches between the columns are statues of great men of Florence whose names are famous throughout the world.

ing. Donatello made them actual portraits in stone, things of life and beauty, independent of their surroundings; figures whose merits command attention and admiration.

All that he earned he used to put in a basket and hang up in his workshop, so that his friends and workmen could help themselves without troubling to ask him. He lived through a happy old age, and died when he was eighty.

THE DELLA ROBBIA FAMILY

The lives of the men we have so far studied show us that the decoration of Florence was an unbroken series of works, spread over many years. The next man of genius to carry on the work was the sculptor, Luca Della Robbia. He was born in Florence in 1400, and was one of Ghiberti's pupils. He took to art as naturally as Giotto had done, and showed such skill in working with marble and bronze that in 1437 he was ordered to complete the series of carvings in relief on one of the sides of Giotto's campanile.

The work was so beautifully done by Luca that it is hard to tell his work from that done by Giotto at his best. Donatello had done some famous carvings in the cathedral, and Luca was given the task of carving a similar set for another part of the cathedral. Donatello's were wonderful, but Luca's were even better. They were figures of singing angels and dancing boys, and were beautiful as the hand of man could make them.

This was not the only time that Luca Della Robbia and Donatello were rivals. The jolly Donatello was ordered to make a bronze door for one of the cathedral chapels, but he was too busy, or too happy, in doing other things, so the work was taken from him and given to Luca. The latter took twenty-one years over his task, but it was work fine enough to have occupied an artist a lifetime. The door is divided into ten panels, and the figures in it seem alive.

There were other Della Robbias after Luca. He taught his nephew, Andrea Della Robbia, and Andrea taught five of his seven sons, of whom Giovanni was, after Luca and Andrea, the most famous of this talented family. Two of the seven sons became monks in order to follow Savonarola. These two sons of Andrea would thus be drawn into the company of Fra Bartolommeo, who, born in 1475, became one of the most renowned of Florentine artists.

THE FAULTLESS PAINTING OF ANDREA DEL SARTO

A pupil of Fra Bartolommeo, Andrea del Sarto (1486-1531), is often placed next to Michaelangelo and Leonardo da Vinci because his drawing was so accurate. Sometimes he was called "the faultless painter." In color he is considered the finest of the Florentines and even rivals the great Venetians.

THE MASTER PAINTER—LEONARDO DA VINCI

We spoke briefly of Leonardo da Vinci as a great figure at Rome, but his greatest work was done in Milan and Florence. At Milan was painted his masterpiece, "The Last Supper." Time and many restorations have left little of Leonardo's work, but fortunately there were copies made which have preserved the beauty of the originals for us.

In Florence he painted the "Mona Lisa," considered by many the most famous portrait in the world. This is now in the Louvre at Paris.

Many artists were influenced by Leonardo, especially Raphael and the later Florentines, Fra Bartolommeo and Andrea del Sarto.

ARTISTS OF MANY NATIONS

THE rebirth of the spirit of art in Europe, which began inthe late thirteenth century, has brought joy and light to the whole modern world. While its first signs were shown in Italy, and that country remained for a long time the leader in painting, sculpture and architecture, the other lands gradually began to develop great artists, who were in many cases touched by the Italian influence, but who began as time went on to show strong national characteristics, and to create schools of their own.

ART IN THE LOW COUNTRIES, BELGIUM AND HOLLAND

Nowhere outside of Italy did the art impulse appear earlier than in the Low Countries, which until the late sixteenth century were one country and included both Belgium (then known as Flanders) and the Netherlands. In both these countries, painting has always been of much more importance than sculpture. There were great architects in Belgium and the Netherlands during the late medieval period, as several magnificent buildings, including the great Antwerp cathedral, clearly show; but the best sculpture to be found in the Netherlandish cities was executed by Italian masters. One of the finest of these, the tomb of Count Engelbrecht of Nassau and his wife in the Hervormde Kerk in Breda, is in pure alabaster, and was made by Thomas Vincenz of Bologna, of whom very little is known.

FLEMISH PAINTERS

Painting began in Flanders with Hubert and Jan van Eyck, whose work is wholly religious, and lifelike, although a little stiff. They and Roger van der Weyden worked in the early fifteenth century; and many of their paintings are preserved. Even better work was done by Hans Memling, who was probably taught by van der Weyden, and by Quentin Matsys, who was brought up as a blacksmith, but fell in love with the daughter of an artist, and learned to paint, so as to please her father and win his consent to the marriage. Matsys was the first Fleming to paint other than religious subjects.

BABY STUART—by VAN DYCK

The greatest name in Flemish art is that of Peter Paul Rubens. His creative imagination, vigor of expression and wonderful coloring, have made him world-famous. He was one of the few fortunate artists to be appreciated during his own lifetime, and had many honors heaped upon him. His paintings are very numerous, and are to be found in all important art museums in Europe and in several in the United States.

Second only to Rubens among Flemish painters is Anthony van Dyck, who was a pupil of the great master. He

is best known as a painter of fine portraits. He spent most of his later life in England, where he became court painter to Charles I, and painted many portraits of the royal family and of the aristocracy. Most of the men in his portraits are painted with pointed beards, which are still called Van Dyck beards.

Frans Snyders is a famous animal painter. Sometimes he and Rubens worked together, Rubens painting a scene and human figures, and Snyders introducing animals into it. Jacob Jordaens was a pupil of Rubens, who painted with great realism. David Teniers the Younger was one of the first of the so-called "Little Masters," who painted small pictures of everyday life with extreme skill and delicacy. The most important of the later Belgian painters belong to the nineteenth century, chief of whom are Eugene Joseph Verboeckhoven, an excellent animal painter, and Laurenz Alma Tadema, who spent most of his life in London, and produced fine pictures of classic scenes, in which his painting of beautiful marble is most notable.

Rembrandt, the Great Artist of Amsterdam

The summit of great painting was reached in the Netherlands in the seventeenth century, immediately following and in the beginning influenced by the climax of the great artistic awakening in Italy, which reached its height in the sixteenth century. The greatest name of all is that of Rembrandt van Ryn, who is one of the few leading painters of all times and lands. He painted directly from nature, never having visited Italy, and not having come strongly under Italian influence. All his life was spent in Amsterdam. He chose every kind of subjects for his paintings, and excelled in all, although he has become most famous as a painter of great portraits, in which minor details are subordinated to the bringing out of character. One of his greatest paintings, which is ranked among the twelve chief paintings of the world, is commonly known as "The Night Watch," although it really represents the early morning sortie of a military company. He was engaged to make a painting of this company; and when his picture was finished, there was great dissatisfaction because the faces of all the members were not made conspicuous. So, although he

Portrait of REMBRANDT—by Himself

had painted a supreme masterpiece, he was almost ruined by it, since his patrons did not wish to pay for such a work, and others hesitated to give him commissions. Rembrandt was not sufficiently appreciated in his own day, and spent the later years of his life in poverty. The present price of any one of his genuine works would have made him rich for life.

Other Artists of Note

Frans Hals, while less of a genius than Rembrandt, is almost equally

popular, and is much loved on account of his delightful portraits and spirited groups. His work is very realistic, and often shows a delicious sense of humor. The people whom he paints never seem to be standing on their dignity, but are friendly and human, such as we would like to have as near neighbors.

Other important portrait painters of the same period were Ferdinand Bol, Nicholas Maes and Bartholomew van der Helst, who were as popular as Rembrandt and Hals in their own day, although we do not now consider their work, excellent as it often is, to be so lifelike and imaginatively strong as that of the greater masters.

Jan Steen was and is very popular as a painter of scenes of merriment, in which the great variety of faces and actions show the play of a most exuberant fancy. Even the soberest person has to laugh at the antics of his jolly companies.

THE "LITTLE MASTERS"—DUTCH "GENRE" PAINTERS

The Dutch "Little Masters" form a wonderful group of what is called "genre" painters, by which is meant those who take their subjects from everyday life. They painted simple domestic scenes with a rare degree of appealing realism. Some of them are very famous for their skillful handling of light and shade. The most important names are those of Gerard Terburg, Gabriel Metsu, Caspar Netscher, Gerard Dou, Frans van Mieris and Pieter de Hooghe. In a class all by himself is Jan van der Meer of Delft, who has a method of producing rich coloring effects used by no other painter. His works are few in number, and are very valuable.

THE LONG LINE OF DUTCH ARTISTS

The Netherlands also produced a number of great landscape painters. Perhaps the chief of these are Jacob van Ruisdael and Meyndert Hobbema. They are very different in style, since Ruisdael chose to paint many wild and strong scenes in nature, with heavy shadows and a sombre atmosphere; while Hobbema limits himself to quiet and sunny village and pastoral landscapes. Ruisdael enjoyed much popularity in his own time, and has continued to be admired; while Hobbema, who is now ranked among the greatest of landscape painters, was in his lifetime and for more than a century afterwards, entirely ignored.

Artus van der Neer, Philip Wouverman, Aalbert Cuyp, Paul Potter, Adrien van der Velde and others also produced many admirable paintings of natural scenes. Each of these had his own specialties, such as the cattle painting of Cuyp and Potter and the cavalry scenes of Wouverman. William van der Velde the Younger was the most notable purely marine painter of the period.

The Dutch painters of the eighteenth century are of less importance; but in the nineteenth century a new group came to the front, some of whom are worthy descendants of the great seventeenth century masters. Josef Israels is noted for his sympathetic pictures of humble life, which go to the heart of the common people. Hendrik Willem Mesdag was one of the greatest modern marine painters. At his death, he bequeathed his house in the Hague, with an invaluable collection of his own and other Dutch paintings and art objects, to the nation; and it is now a museum which attracts visitors from all parts of the world. Anton Mauve was an able cattle painter. Jacob, Matthys and Willem Maris were three brothers, who have had a great influence on modern Dutch landscape art, in which all excelled.

THE ART OF GERMANY

The best German architecture and sculpture belong to the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, although the Cologne Cathedral, perhaps the most impressive church building in Europe, is one of many fine religious structures of earlier date. The great sculptors Adam Krafft, Veit Stoss and Peter Vischer, devoted themselves chiefly to religious and funereal subjects, in which they had few superiors outside of Italy.

No important German painters are known before the early fifteenth century. Toward the end of this century appears the greatest painter whom Germany has ever known. This is

ALBERT DÜRER

Albert Dürer, who stands with Raphael, Michelangelo, Leonardo da Vinci, Titian, Corregio, Rembrandt and Rubens in the front rank among the painters of all time. Dürer spent part of his early life in Italy, but was not much influenced by the Italian methods. His art was very distinctive, and of a highly intellectual quality. He had a most powerful imagination and a touch of mysticism. One of his most famous etchings, the "Melancholia," is full of an impressive symbolism, which nobody has ever been able fully to interpret. The finest attempt to explain its meaning is that of the English poet James Thomson, in "The City of Dreadful Night." He was also famous as an engraver and etcher, and is said to have been the inventor of the process of etching.

Lucas Cranach the Elder, an intimate friend of Martin Luther, is one of the interesting painters of the period. He has painted vivid and realistic portraits of the people of his time, as well as many religious subjects. He was perhaps the first important Protestant painter; and his religious paintings show many marked differences from the treatment of similar subjects by the great Roman Catholic artists.

After Dürer, the greatest German painter was Hans Holbein the Younger, who belongs to the early sixteenth century. He was a wide traveler, and spent the last of his life as court painter in England. He combined a powerful realism with a strong sense of beauty; and while his paintings are original in the highest degree, he learned much from the Italian artists of the great period. His portraits are now almost beyond price. He was also a master of wood engraving; and his series called the "Dance of Death" is very famous.

Coming to the nineteenth century, we find in Franz Lenbach one of the finest modern portrait painters. His treatment reminds one of the best of the old masters in its vigor and distinctiveness. His portrait of Bismarck is especially notable as a marvelous interpretation of character.

Other modern German painters worth special mention are Gabriel Max, painter of traditional scenes of early Christian martyrs; Heinrich Hofmann, who painted the famous "Christ and the Rich Young Ruler," copies of which are seen everywhere; Ludwig Knaus, who has reproduced many charming scenes of everyday life; Adolph Menzel, noted as a historic painter; Michael Munkacsy, whose "Christ before Pilate" made him immediately famous; and Arnold Boecklin, who created almost a sensation with his "Isles of the Dead" and other landscapes of a weird and mysterious nature.

Velasquez and other Spanish painters

Little is known of Spanish painting before the sixteenth century. One of the earliest important artists of that period was Domenico Theotocopuli; but very few persons would recognize him by that name, which certainly does not look Spanish. As a matter of fact, he was of Greek parentage; and everywhere except in technical books on painting he is called El Greco, which means the Greek. He painted very striking portraits, with a clear and almost angular outline found in hardly any other painter.

The greatest of all Spanish painters was Diego de Silva Velasquez, whose work was done in the first half of the seventeenth century. He was one of the chief portrait painters of all time. His figures seem so much alive that we almost expect them to speak to us. He studied in Italy, as well as under Spanish teachers, but developed his own methods. He was court painter to Philip IV, and has made the members of the royal family and many of the grandees of Spain as familiar to us as if we had seen them in real life.

Bartolomè Esteban Murillo, a pupil of Velasquez, comes next to him in importance among Spanish painters. He was less realistic and more sentimental. There is a tender beauty in all his work, whether he is painting flower girls and street boys, which he was very fond of doing, or mystical religious pictures. He was especially devoted to painting the Madonna, which he did in many different ways.

After him in importance, but very excellent in his own way, comes Francisco de Zurburan, whose favorite subjects were Spanish monks. Sometimes he has painted them sympathetically, at others in a satiric spirit. His paintings are very popular, and are found in all the galleries of Europe.

About a century later came Francisco Goya, whose reputation has been increasing in recent years. He was a powerfully and even painfully dramatic realist, who painted terrible scenes of battles, murders and other horrors. As a portrait painter, he was mercilessly accurate, showing the worst faults of the persons whom he painted with the most brutal frankness, and satirizing the vices of his age unsparingly.

Later Spanish painters of note, whose productions will certainly live after them are Mareano Fortuny, whose Oriental scenes have made him famous; Raimundo de Madrazo, a portraitist of great distinction; Eduardo Zamacois painter of attractive episodes from everyday life; Martin Rico, an unusually fine landscape artist; Joaquin Sorolla y Bastida, one of the greatest colorists of our time; and Ignacio Zuloaga, a great genius, who has the intense realism of Goya without his brutal coarseness.

Painters of France

Early French painting is little more than mediocre imitation of the work of the Italian schools. Nicholas Pous-

sin, while he spent much of his life in Italy, and followed Italian models, showed more than average ability, and painted some striking landscapes. He belongs to the seventeenth century, as does Claude Gellée, commonly known as Claude Lorrain, from his birthplace. Claude was a famous landscapist, who for the first time showed in his pictures the effect of brilliant sunlight. In other ways, he was severely conventional, although very skilful. Philip de Champaigne was the first effective portrait painter of France. Other successful seventeenth and early eighteenth painters of portraits were Pierre Mignard, Nicholas de Largilliere and Hyacinthe Rigaud.

While France was later than some of the other countries in beginning to produce distinguished painters, she has more than made up for it by the steady succession of great artists. In fact, she is the only country in which from the early seventeenth century to the present day there has not been a single generation without some painters deserving to be remembered.

The chief painter of the early eighteenth century was Antoine Watteau. He set an entirely new style in French art, and, in fact, in the art of the world, by his charming and delicate pictures of the lighter side of life. He painted the gay society of his day, showing groups of beautiful women and handsome men, all in the rich clothing of their time, engaged in feasts and merry pastimes. His technical skill was perfect; but he touched only on the superficial and rather unreal side of life. As a result, he was imitated by a crowd of inferior painters, who did much injury to real art by their affectations.

Jean Baptiste Chardin, beginning his career in the midst of the degraded art established by the popular imitators of Watteau, came at the right time to be a good antidote. If he was influenced by anybody, it was by the "Little Masters" of Holland, who were the best of models. He painted simple domestic scenes with a sympathetic realism, and introduced a great deal of "still life," which means the choice of inanimate objects as the chief features of a painting. He was followed by Jean Honore Fragonard, who blended much of the realism of Chardin with the better features of the school of Watteau.

The eighteenth century as a whole was an artificial age, and perhaps more so in France than in some other countries. Chardin stands almost alone as a true naturalist; and his influence was not strong enough to change the general tendency. Jean Baptiste Greuze, one of the most popular painters of the years before the French Revolution, catered to the prevailing taste for sentimentality and affectation. Yet some of his heads of young girls have a haunting appeal. Claude Joseph Vernet was a leading landscape painter of the same period, and shows more cleverness than real observation of nature, but has some traces of great power.

The time was coming, however, for a great change. At first, the new style was more reactionary than progressive. It was a revolt against the artificial prettiness which had made most of the eighteenth century French art so trivial; but it took the form of a return to an equally artificial attempt to imitate the style of the Romans, and gives us the effect of great stiffness, although with much noble dignity. Its chief representative was Jacques Louis David, who became under and after the Revolution the most influential painter of the time. As a public figure, David is rather

contemptible, always ready to toady to the element in power. He was a slavish monarchist at the court of Louis XVI, a violent Republican during the Revolution, and a wretched truckler to Napoleon, under the tyranny of that unscrupulous stealer of power. After the fall of Napoleon, he found that he had gone too far to curry favor with the new regime, and so was forced into deserved exile. But through all his political changes, he kept his artistic ideals, for which he deserves full credit.

For some years, the classical school of David was followed by all who wished to be recognized as important painters in France. The change to a less artificial representation of nature began largely with Jean Dominique Auguste Ingres, who tried to emphasize the beauty of form as found in natural scenes and figures. His work comes very close to a happy medium between the extremes of classicism and of realism.

With the appearance of Ferdinand Victor Eugéne Delacroix, the romantic school of painting began to assert itself. He painted with largeness of design and with wonderful color effects, and is the first of the great dramatic artists. Alexander Gabriel Decamps and Eugene Fromentin followed, specializing in striking Oriental scenes. A little later, Jean Leon Gerome carried this style of painting still further in the display of almost barbaric magnificence.

THE FONTAINEBLEAU—BARBIZON SCHOOL OF FRENCH PAINTERS

One of the greatest group of modern French painters is generally known as the Fontainebleau-Barbizon school. Barbizon was a little town near the great Forest of Fontainebleau, where these men found many of their subjects. Each of them had his own distinctive qualities, though all of them agreed in their rejection of more conventional artificiality and in their effort to interpret the real spirit of nature as they saw and divined it. Jean Baptiste Camille Corot, the greatest of them all, painted wonderful landscapes, in which the details were subordinated to the general impression. Pierre Étienne Théodore Rousseau (how many of these Frenchmen delighted in long and high-sounding names!) was more realistic in his method, and showed tremendous power. Jules Dupré had something of both methods. Narcisso Virgilio Diaz de la Pena paid special attention to light and atmosphere. Charles Francois Daubigny loved to introduce quiet pools of water or gentle rivers into his scenes. Constant Troyon was a great painter of landscapes with cattle. These men worked in wonderful harmony; and their influence on later French art has been overwhelming.

THE MAN WITH THE HOE—by MILLET

THE GENIUS OF MILLET

Jean Francois Millet is one of the great geniuses of the nineteenth century. He painted peasant life with marvelous skill and sympathy. Edwin Markham's famous poem, "The Man with the Hoe," is based on one of Millet's greatest pictures. While Millet

did not have the desire for social reform which is evident in the poem, but painted simply to show human nature as he saw it, both the painting and the poem are noble productions.

Rosa Bonheur—the Great Painter of Animals

The daughter of a struggling Paris artist, Rosa, as a child spent hours copying pictures in the art galleries. Her chief interest lay in depicting animals and she dressed as a boy and spent days in the stockyards of Paris studying types. While yet in her teens she exhibited her "Rabbits Eating Carrots," and soon she became known as the foremost painter of animals. Her famous "Horse Fair," showing ten life-size animals, was bought by Cornelius Vanderbilt, and now hangs in the Metropolitan Museum in New York City.

ROSA BONHEUR

Later French Painters

Many of the later French painters have great qualities; and without doubt some of them will be recognized as famous. Among those of whom we may be very sure are Puvis de Chavannes, finest of purely decorative artists; Edouard Manet, founder of the "Impressionist" method, which means the vivid expression of a moment's impression, with atmosphere, life and movement, as well as the suggestion of form; and Claude Monet, first and greatest of the "Landscape Impressionists."

Two Noted French Sculptors

France is also entitled to the honor of having produced the greatest genius among modern sculptors, in the person of Auguste Rodin. This famous master, who died only a few years ago, in many respects recalls the power and imaginative force of Michelangelo. His work, however, lacks the serenity which underlies the immense vigor of the supreme Italian artist. It is often more rugged than finished, yet frequently rises to great heights of beauty. Rodin's position in the history of art has been very much disputed; but time is pronouncing strongly on his side.

The greatest animal sculptor of modern, and perhaps of all time was also a Frenchman. Antoine Louis Barye, who came a little before Rodin, worked chiefly in bronze, and has succeeded, as has nobody else, in showing all kinds of animals in a manner suggesting vigorous action and life-like movement.

The Story of English Painters

The history of English painting is somewhat shorter, but includes some very important names. These begin to appear in the eighteenth century, with the satirical painter William Hogarth. He chose scenes from life, chiefly presented in such a way as to ridicule folly and to scourge vice. His works are very dramatic and effective.

The greatest portrait painter of the period was Sir Joshua Reynolds. His

paintings always have great distinction, and at the same time are life-like and natural. Among his sitters were many of the leading men and women of his day. Thomas Gainsborough, his leading rival, was also a great master, and sometimes even excelled Reynolds in the imaginative quality of his work. He was also very successful as a landscape painter. Another finely sympathetic portrait painter was George Romney. Sir Thomas Lawrence and others also at times produced very effective portraits.

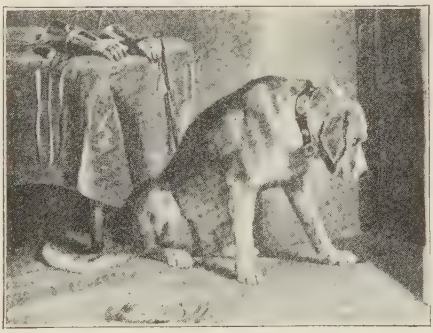
Landscape painting in England begins with Richard Wilson, who began to paint a little before Gainsborough. He was much influenced by the Italians, and painted rather conventional landscapes; but he broke the ground for a distinctively English school. Gainsborough produced much finer work in this department.

A still greater landscape painter than Gainsborough was John Constable, who belongs to the early nineteenth century. He broke more completely away from the Italians, who were never very successful in this form of painting, and developed an independent method based on a realistic interpretation of nature. He had much in common with the great Dutch landscapists, and in a sense helped prepare the way for the Fontainebleau - Barbizon school in France. His subjects were all those of English scenery. John Crome, called Old Crome, also produced landscapes of a high order in a distinctively English manner.

One of the most famous of English landscape painters was Joseph Mallard William Turner. Ruskin wrote his great book "Modern Painters" chiefly to call attention to Turner as a great artist. He is poetical, rather than realistic, using very brilliant lights and paying much attention to atmosphere and perspective. The backgrounds in his pictures are often very sketchy, since his main purpose was to force attention on his central subject.

AN ENGLISHMAN WHO PAINTED ANIMALS AS HAVING NOBLE HUMAN QUALITIES

Sir Edwin Landseer is one of the most popular English painters on account of his sympathetic pictures of animals. He is criticized by some authorities on art because of his extreme sentimentalism, and is accused of making his animals appear to have too many qualities that belong only to human beings. But this may be called "a good fault," since it errs on the side of the noblest feelings.



SUSPENSE—A painting by LANDSEER

THE PRE-RAPHAELITE BROTHERHOOD

Toward the middle of the nineteenth century, a group of young painters began to come forward under the name of the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood. They wanted to go back to the point of view of the old masters, who came before Raphael, and who were more literal in their representation of nature than the later painters. There was a violent controversy over their work; and the movement, though supported by important writers and critics like Ruskin, gradually ceased to exist as a distinctive method. It did much good, however, in influencing later artists to more sincerity in treating their subjects. The most distinguished of the

Pre-Raphaelites were Holman Hunt, Dante Gabriel Rossetti (also a well known English poet of a mystical type), Sir John Everett Millais, Ford Madox Brown and Sir Edward Burne-Jones. All of these have produced charming and well executed pictures, although most of them gradually gave up the extreme views of the Brotherhood.

Art in the United States

American art is still more recent in its growth than that of England. The first American painters, who appear in the late eighteenth century, were chiefly copyists of English methods. In fact, Benjamin West, the earliest historical painter, is often classed among English painters, because, although born in this country, he spent most of his active life in England. He was the first painter of historical subjects, to dress his characters in the clothes of their time, instead of in the conventional Greek and Roman costumes. When he first undertook to do this, he was looked upon as very daring and radical; but he proved that this was the only true method; and it has been followed ever since. His work shows large power of conception, but is rather stiff in its impression.

Early portrait painters

With the exception of West, the most important early American painters all devoted themselves chiefly to portraits. The earliest of these was John Singleton Copley, who studied in Italy for some years, and later spent much time in London. He painted many of the colonial notables of his day.

Gilbert C. Stuart is noted especially for his numerous portraits of George Washington (see P. 164), his favorite subject. These are to be seen in the galleries of different art museums in this country. He also painted portraits of the other early presidents of the United States and of some of the revolutionary heroes. All his work shows energy and vigorous characterization.

Other prominent portrait painters of the early period were Charles W. Peale, Rembrandt Peale, John W. Jarvis and Thomas Sully. John Trumbull and Emanuel Leutze specialized in historic painting.

Developing of art in America

Washington Allston is a link between Benjamin West and the modern idealistic painters. He painted idealized religious and historical scenes, with much imagination and feeling, without a very close attention to nature or reality.

William M. Hunt is one of the first of the true moderns in American art. He studied in Paris and at Barbizon about the middle of the nineteenth century, coming into contact with the great Fontainebleau-Barbizon group of painters. He gave himself mainly to portraits and idealistic paintings, bringing the spirit and methods of the French painters to America, but infusing an original genius into his work. He produced paintings of the highest value and inspired those who were to follow.

At about the same time, American landscape art was taking a great step forward. George Inness may well be ranked among the greatest landscape painters of the world. He is as true an interpreter of nature as the best of the great Frenchmen, and in his prime had no superior in any country. His paintings are solidly founded on nature as it really is, but breathe into the reality, represented with the utmost perfection of technique, a spirit of beauty and of poetic imagination such as has rarely been known.

Other fine landscape painters of the

time were Homer Martin and A. H. Wyant. Each of these men had his own distinctive technique; but both of them, like Inness, saw the inner meaning of nature, and truthfully represented both what they saw and what they felt. They are as distinct as possible from the older artificial or photographic school. There is light and atmosphere, as well as drawing and color, in their paintings.

AN IMPORTANT PAINTER WHO WROTE A BOOK CALLED "THE GENTLE ART OF MAKING ENEMIES"

James A. McNeill Whistler is one of the greatest of American painters, and has perhaps the greatest reputation outside of this country of any of our artists. He spent most of his life in France, where some of his best paintings are to be found, though a number of them are in American galleries. As a portrait-painter, he has had few equals among the painters of any country. His picture of his mother in the Luxembourg museum in Paris is one of the greatest portraits in the world, and makes a strong appeal to everybody. He had peculiar theories of art, however, and called this wonderful picture, with all its human sympathy, simply "an arrangement in black and white." His genius was so great that it could not be kept within the limits of any theory. He was a man of many remarkable eccentricities, frankly egotistic, and ready to become offended very easily. He once sued the great writer Ruskin for publishing a criticism in which one of his paintings was described as looking as if he had just thrown a pot of paint at the canvas. The jury could not make much of the technical discussion of art at the trial, and decided that he had not suffered any real injury. He had many friends, and quarreled with most of them. Some of these quarrels are described by him in a very curious and amusing book called "The Gentle Art of Making Enemies."

RECENT ART IN OUR COUNTRY

Our own generation has seen the rise of a large number of notable American painters, some of whom have died within the last few years, while others are still living. There are also certain of the younger men, who show striking promise. Among the older men of our time, living or recently dead may be mentioned Edwin A. Abbey, Winslow Homer, William M. Chase, John W. Alexander, Childe Hassam, J. Alden Weir, Ralph A. Blakelock, Edmund C. Tarbell, Frank W. Benson and Thomas W. Dewing, and among the younger men Charles W. Hawthorne and George Bellows. A number of others, however, have an equal right to be considered. It is not unfair nor overboastful to say that the present generation of American painters has produced as great and as fine work as can be shown within the same period in any country in the world. John S. Sargent, perhaps our chief recent painter, spent most of his time in England, where his reputation was on a par with that of any artist of late years. He was especially great as a portraitist and as a painter of exquisite water color scenes.

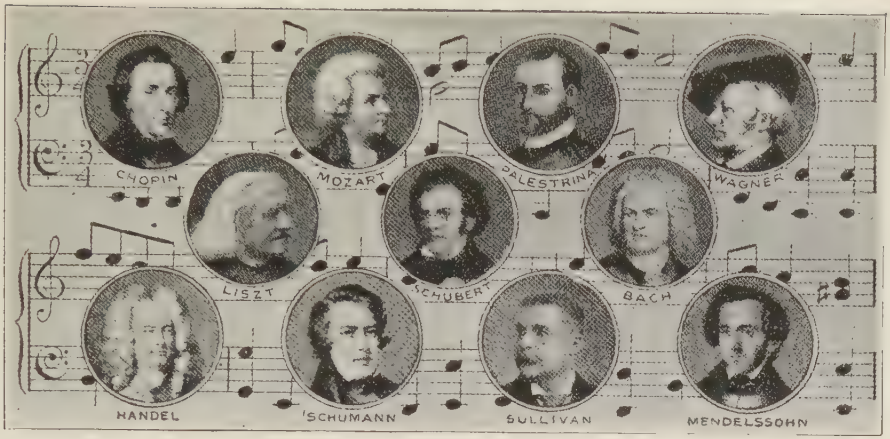
With the new men who are rapidly coming to the front, it may be said that the outlook for the art of painting in the United States is extremely high.

THE DEARTH OF GREAT SCULPTORS AND SOME WHO ARE IMPORTANT

In the consideration of the great modern artists, attention has been given mainly to painting, because the greatest development of the past three hundred years has been in this department. The great sculptors of the classical Greek and the medieval Italian periods have not had equally great successors; and the art of sculpture has lagged somewhat behind that

of painting in every modern country. There are very good reasons for this, which it would take too long to discuss here. Good sculptors are common in the different countries; but great ones are rare. The only one who may fairly be called a real genius was Rodin. Constant Meunier in Belgium is much admired by some on account of his sympathetic group of working people; and Prince Paul Troubetzkoy of Russia has produced some very striking work. In America, we have had several men of high ability, who have fallen just a little short of genius. Augustus St. Gaudens was one of the most talented, and deserves a very honored place. Gutzon Borglum has a fresh and vigorous talent, which justifies his popularity. Daniel C. French has produced dignified and noble work. George Gray Barnard comes at least close to the edge of great genius with his powerfully imaginative work, in which technical skill and poetic feeling are finely united. Lorado Taft combines the ideal with the realistic. He is a writer and teacher as well, and has helped thousands of young people.

From the "Frieze of the Prophets" by Sargent, in the Boston Public Library



GREAT COMPOSERS OF MUSIC

THERE were really no great composers of music until within the last three or four hundred years. The first composer treated seriously by the musical historians was Palestrina, who died in 1594. He wrote a Mass—that is, a musical setting of the Roman Catholic Church service—which the Pope thought so fine that he ordered it to be taken as the pattern for all the future music of the Church. But Palestrina's music never took hold of the people. The first great composer whose music did that was George Frederick Handel.

Handel was a German, born at a little town called Halle, in 1685. His father was one of those seventeenth-century barbers who were at the same time doctors and dentists. And he had made up his mind that his son should be brought up in the profession of the law. But music was in the boy's blood, and nothing would check his ambition to be a composer. He smuggled a rickety spinet—an old-fashioned kind of piano—up to the attic where he slept, and at night, when all the others were in bed, he played and played, until he mastered the instrument. His father soon realized that it was no use keeping him back from his desire, so he procured him good teachers, and did everything that he possibly could to help him forward in his chosen art.

In time Handel began to compose big works, mostly operas. But the operas had no great run on the Continent, so he came to London and settled down there. For years he did almost nothing but write operas, and he generally rented a theater of his own. He had some successes, but he had more failures; and, in fact, was twice bankrupt over his opera business. Yet, if Handel had not failed with his operas, we should never have had those grand oratorios by which we know him now, for he turned to oratorio when he had exhausted himself with opera. An oratorio is a long sacred composition for voices, the words nearly always taken from the Bible.

Somebody has said of Handel that he set the Bible to music. And he did very nearly. He wrote more than twenty oratorios, though not more than three or four of them are performed today. But one alone, of the three or four, would have been

quite enough to immortalize the name of Handel; for it is to Handel that we owe "The Messiah," heard all over the country every Christmas season. Just as we think of "Paradise Lost" when we think of Milton, so it is "The Messiah" that comes to our minds when we think of Handel. And he wrote it—this long work, which takes more than two hours to sing—wrote it, choruses, solos, accompaniments, and everything, in twenty-three days!

A GREAT GERMAN COMPOSER WHO IS BURIED IN WESTMINSTER ABBEY

Of course, he wrote other things that we like to remember besides his oratorios. Every young pianist plays his "Harmonious Blacksmith," for instance, and violinists and singers often have his name in their programmes. Sometimes, too, if we go to an organ recital, we shall hear a concerto of his. But, after all, he is the great composer of oratorio, with only Mendelssohn as a faint rival. He was a naturalized Englishman, and when he died, in 1759, they laid him beside the great men and women in Westminster Abbey, where we may see a monument representing him in the act of writing, "I know that my Redeemer liveth" for "The Messiah." We may also see his house in Hanover Square. He had a fiery temper, used "bad words" sometimes, and once threatened to throw a disobedient singer out of the window, but he was also pious and charitable.

HANDEL AND BACH, WHOSE MAGNIFICENT MUSIC WILL LIVE FOREVER

The greatest musician who was living in Handel's time was John Sebastian Bach. The two, Handel and Bach, are often spoken of as if they were a sort of Siamese twins of music. They were both Germans, and they were born within a month of each other. Both were fine organists; both gave great religious works to the musical world; and both were stricken blind in their later years. Beyond that, they did not have much in common. Handel never married; Bach was a quiet, stay-at-home man, who married twice and had a family of twenty sons and daughters. He was an organist first of all, and his organ compositions, after all these years, are the most perfect things of the kind ever produced; and there is not a serious-minded organist in the land who does not think of Bach when he is going to give an organ recital. Bach is to the organist what Shakespeare is to the actor.

In this connection there is a little story that may be told. Bach lived in the time of Frederick the Great. Now, Frederick was musical; he played the flute very well, and he took a notion to have a visit from Bach. So Bach, then an old man over sixty, set out on the journey. The king was at supper when his arrival was announced. Springing from the table, Frederick broke up the meal with the words, "Gentlemen, Bach is here!" and took Bach, weary as he was with travel, through the palace. Bach played upon the piano, and improvised upon a little melody given him by Frederick. Then, at the end, he told Frederick that he preferred the organ.

THE GRAND OLD MAN OF THE ORGAN, WHOSE INFLUENCE LIVES TODAY

That was what Bach preferred; and we think of him mainly as the grand old man of that noble instrument, which we are constantly hearing in the churches, and musicians call the "king of instruments." It is not likely that we shall often hear Bach outside the churches. But let us remember this: that Bach has had a great and lasting influence on all the great composers who have followed him. All looked up to him, and took, as it were, their

cue from his seriousness and his calm dignity. Beethoven was enthralled by his B minor Mass, which is occasionally performed. Mozart, by chance, listened to some of his compositions, and came away deeply impressed and wondering. Mendelssohn, Schumann, Wagner, Brahms—every one of them revered Bach as their godfather in music. So, while we may not hear very much of Bach's own music, we should never forget that we are as good as hearing it in the works of those who came after him. This wonderful genius died in 1750, nine years before Handel, who mourned for him as for a brother. So much for the first pair of great composers. Now we will take another pair—Mozart and Haydn. It has been remarked as strange that Bach and Handel, though they were born, both Germans, in the same year, and lived practically throughout the same period, never met. It was not so with Mozart and Haydn. They met often, and they were very fond of each other. It was Haydn who described Mozart as "the most extraordinary, original, and comprehensive musical genius ever known in this or any other nation."

That was a very generous tribute, especially as musicians are so often extremely jealous of each other. We will deal with Haydn first, for he was called "Papa" Haydn, so much did they love him in his own day. He was the father of most of the instrumental forms of music which are now regarded as fixed forms—the symphony, the sonata, the string quartette, and the like. That is to say, he wrote works in these departments which every composer feels to be models.

The poor peasant boy who became the father of modern music

That, in itself, was a notable thing to achieve. And it was particularly notable for a poor boy who had to go out into the world to earn his own living at an age when boys nowadays are at school, enjoying their games, if not their lessons. The parents of this great composer were humble Austrian peasants, and they were living in a wretched farmhouse with a barn attached when he was born in 1732.

But Haydn had at any rate one advantage; his musical abilities, discovered in early childhood, were not thwarted by his father. The father arranged for the training of his young prodigy, and the young prodigy was taught his crotchets and quavers with many floggings when things went wrong. He developed a good voice, and so was sent to sing in the choir of Vienna Cathedral. But the day came when his voice "broke," and he was of no more use to the choirmaster, who might have kept him resting until his voice "set;" but Haydn had displeased him. One day he played a boyish prank on a fellow-singer and he was dismissed from the choir and left to provide for himself as best he could.

You would not like to hear of all the hardships he endured for long after this. He became a great singing teacher's servant; he played the violin at dances and even in the streets!

The happy days of Haydn's life and how he wrote his best music

But he was perfecting himself in composition all the time; and a set of sonatas that he wrote took the fancy of a wealthy countess, who procured him a remunerative engagement, and introduced him to pupils who paid well. Henceforward he had no trouble in getting on. In 1760 he married, not very happily, and a year later he entered the service of the Esterhazys, one of the richest Austrian families of the time. Great families kept a

Like most of the great composers, Haydn was very poor in his young days and wandered about the streets of Vienna playing the violin to make a very precarious living. But later he became rich and famous and it was in England that his greatness was first recognized. Here we see him on his way to England watching and listening to a storm to which he afterward gave realistic expression in his oratorios the "Creation" and the "Seasons."

Handel giving a concert on the Thames for George I of England

permanent band of their own in those days, and Haydn was the Esterhazys' bandmaster. The post gave him a good salary and a comfortable home, and he went on with his composition under favorable conditions.

In 1790, the Esterhazy orchestra was disbanded. Then he came to London on a visit, and wrote for certain London concerts some of those symphonies which we still delight to hear. Altogether he wrote about 150 of these symphonies. Mozart saw him just before he left, and wept at the parting. "We shall never meet again," he said; and it proved true. In the music of church hymnals we find a tune called "Austria," with Haydn's name attached, and it was after hearing "God Save the King" in London that Haydn felt he must make a national tune of the same kind for his own beloved Austria.

THE TENDER HOMAGE OF ONE GREAT MUSICIAN FOR ANOTHER

He went home and wrote "God Preserve the Emperor," and then somebody made the air into the hymn-tune that has been sung so often.

His symphonies are still played by the leading orchestras; his piano music is in all the publishers' lists; and his oratorio of "The Creation" ranks as a good third to "The Messiah" and "Elijah." Haydn wrote "The Creation" in his old age, and it was in listening to a performance of it that he made his last appearance in public. The excitement was too much for him. "Not I, but a power from above created that," he cried out at one point. They carried him away, and as he passed, Beethoven, who happened to be there, bent down and fervently kissed his hand and forehead. It was a pretty and a tender act of homage.

Haydn's music is for the most part bright and genial, and even sparkling with a dainty grace, and a constant melody, which was his most marked characteristic. Young people must always love Haydn and his music.

THE WONDER OF MOZART'S GENIUS AND HOW HE COMPOSED MUSIC AT FIVE

Young people should take a special interest in Mozart, for Mozart was a distinguished musician at a more tender age than any of the other great composers. A young man once asked Mozart to tell him how to compose. The gentle Wolfgang Amadeus, for these were his Christian names, made answer that the questioner was too young to be thinking of such a serious occupation. "But you were much younger when you began," said the aspirant. "Ah, yes, that is true," replied Mozart, with a smile; "but then, you see, I did not ask anybody how to compose." Mozart was born in the city of Salzburg, in 1756, and he was only five when he composed a minuet and trio that boys and girls of much maturer age might play with some effect today.

His father was a good musician, specially expert as a violinist, and Wolfgang had a sister, Maria Anna, who, at first, showed nearly as much talent as himself. Hence they all—the father and the two children—started on a musical tour, in the course of which Mozart played before the Empress Maria Theresa, and romped with the little princess who afterwards became Queen of France—the unfortunate Marie Antoinette. These great ladies used to take him on their knee, and kiss him, and shower gold upon him.

HOW MOZART BECAME POOR AND DANCED TO KEEP WARM

It was Mozart's happiest time, for from the day that he began life in earnest as a married man—that was in 1782—the wolf of poverty was never away from his door. He composed

incessantly, but even successful composition did not pay then as it does now, and the butcher and the baker were often worrying poor Mozart for a settlement of their accounts. A friend called one winter day, and found Mozart and his wife waltzing round the room. "We were cold," they said, "and we have no wood to make a fire." Let us think of that, and then think of the glorious works that Mozart produced under such depressing conditions. He left 769 compositions in all, and he was still under forty when he died.

In his own day he was regarded chiefly as a composer of opera. He wrote forty-nine symphonies, and conductors still like to have some of these played, particularly the so-called "Jupiter" symphony, and one in G minor, which has been described as his "tenderest and daintiest instrumental composition." All his works are full of charming melody, of which he had a fund only equaled by Haydn.

THE STORMY DAY WHEN MOZART WAS LAID IN AN UNKNOWN GRAVE

Mozart's end was very sad. He was taken ill in 1791, and during his illness he wrote a famous "Requiem," a sort of funeral song, which he had sung around his death-bed, to hear its effect. Then, on his funeral day, a great storm arose, and only the undertaker and his men went to the cemetery to see him buried. He died so poor that his remains had to be put into a pauper's grave, where many other coffins lay. Nobody went near the grave for many years, and then it was found that nobody could point it out. So Mozart's monument in Vienna cemetery stands over an empty grave, while the composer's dust reposes no one knows where. It is pathetic to think of such an end of a great man.

There was another great composer who went through very much the same sufferings, the same persecutions and fate as Mozart. His name was Franz Schubert. "My music is the product of my genius and my misery," Schubert said. It could hardly be otherwise. His people were poor, and he had eighteen brothers and sisters, from which we may judge that no special attention was given to his education and upbringing. But, just as "truth will out," so will genius. Schubert entered upon music as a prince enters on his dominions. When they began to teach him music, they found that somehow he had learned the rudiments for himself.

He began to compose at eleven, and he consumed as much music-paper as would have made a small fortune for a stationer. He wrote all kinds of things at that time—overtures, symphonies, quartets, operettas, church music, piano music, and so on. But now we remember him almost solely for his songs, and for a few orchestral pieces.

GERMANY'S GREATEST SONG-WRITER AND HOW HE COMPOSED A FAMOUS SONG

He is Germany's greatest classical song writer. He composed more than 500 songs, but, of course, only a small number of these are popular. The one we are most likely to hear is "The Erl King," the poem written by Goethe.

One afternoon, Schubert took up a volume of Goethe's works lying on his table. He read "The Erl King." The rushing sound of the wind and the terrors of the enchanted forest were instantly changed for him into realities. Every line seemed to flow into strange, unearthly music as he read; and, seizing a pen, Schubert dashed down the song nearly as we know it. He had a great singer sing it, and then a Vienna music publisher, who had hitherto declined to have anything to

HOW HAYDN PLAYED WHILE VIENNA BURNED

A hundred years ago, when the French army was firing upon Vienna, two men sat listening to the guns that thundered through the streets. In a cellar sat Beethoven, vainly trying to shut out the sound of the guns from his ears, lest they should ruin his hearing and make him deaf to music; in another room Haydn struggled up in his bed, and with his dying fingers played the Austrian national anthem to try to drown the noise of the enemy's fire. It is a wonderful picture that this tale brings to our minds—the picture of two of the world's great musicians, whose music will live forever, sitting, while life and power were ebbing from them—for Beethoven did become deaf, and Haydn died—helpless in the face of the great destroyer of mankind, the cruel curse of war.

do with his songs, asked to have it. He paid Schubert a very small sum, though in a few months the publisher made $400 out of it. That was the way with Schubert all along. Some of his finest songs were sold for the price of a meal. Grinding poverty, slights, insults, disappointments innumerable—that was Schubert's portion. He died in 1828, before he was quite thirty-two, and they laid him to rest near Beethoven, at whose deathbed he had shed tears, with this inscription on his tombstone: "Music buried here a rich possession and yet fairer hopes."

THE MIGHTY BEETHOVEN, WHO WAS TOO DEAF TO HEAR HIS OWN MUSIC

We have still to speak of Beethoven. Recall Haydn for a moment. When Haydn was dying in Vienna, in 1809, the French were bombarding the town. Haydn's servants were terrified, but Haydn took it all very calmly. He asked to be lifted from his bed to the piano, and when he had got seated he played his own "Austrian Hymn" three times over, while the guns were thundering outside.

Now, at that very moment there was another composer in Vienna, crouching in a cellar, with cotton-wool stuffed in his ears. That composer was the mighty Beethoven. His hearing had begun to go, and he was frightened that the sound of the explosions would still further endanger it. Think of a musician being deaf! You might as well think of a painter being blind! Yet Beethoven, in some respects the greatest composer who ever lived, became almost totally deaf.

This infliction embittered his life and its effect upon his rugged and forceful character was to make him at times, surly and hard to deal with, but nevertheless this very deafness intensified his inner life and probably resulted in giving the world a greater "philosopher in tones" than he otherwise would have become.

Like Handel, Beethoven did not marry. Apart from his deafness he appears to have had a hard life which seems a grievous injustice since through his life so many others have been made better and more beautiful.

THE HOME OF A BOY WHO WAS TO MAKE A NOISE IN THE WORLD

Born in 1770, at Bonn, that pretty little university town on the Rhine, where they have preserved his birthplace just as it was, he had to work his way up in a home directed by a father who was a confirmed drunkard. The father was musical, and he had heard something about the triumphs of the Mozart children in Vienna and Paris and London, and he thought he would make money out of his own Louis. So he set him to work at the piano, and visitors would often see the child late at night shedding tears over the keyboard. By-and-by he was sent to Vienna to complete his musical education. There he met Mozart, who exclaimed, when he heard him play: "Pay attention to this youngster for he will yet make a noise in the world." We know now how true that prophecy was.

THE DEATH OF BEETHOVEN IN VIENNA AND THE BIRTH OF CHOPIN IN POLAND

Beethoven's works for the piano—particularly his sonatas — are the grandest things of their kind ever written. All the great pianists regard him as the king of composers for their instrument. And so, too, with the orchestra. Take away Beethoven's nine symphonies — the "immortal nine," they are sometimes called—and we should take away the backbone from the orchestra. He did not write very much for the voice, for he was essentially an instrumental composer; but he left one beautiful song,

"Adelaide," and one great opera, "Fidelio." He passed away in March, 1827, and Vienna never before saw such a funeral as his, the crowds being so immense that the soldiers had to be called out to clear a passage for the procession.

There was another great composer for the piano, and he wrote the most poetical, dreamy, emotional things that we are ever likely to hear from that instrument. The name of this composer was Frederic Chopin. He was a Pole, born near Warsaw, in 1809, and his music seems to breathe the romance that we commonly associate with his nation. He was a consumptive, and died early, in 1849, after a long struggle with disease and weakness. There was something feminine about him, but perhaps that is just why we find his music so refined, and so full of emotion and grace. He is really the poet of the piano—nothing strong and grand about him, like Beethoven—with an ethereal grace and charm such as we find in no one else.

Mendelssohn, a genius who was born to wealth and happiness

Another great composer who met him in 1834 gave him the significant pet name of "Chopinetto." This was Mendelssohn, a German, born the same year as Chopin himself, who said of one of his pieces, "it is so perfectly beautiful that I could go on forever playing it." One might say the same of several of Mendelssohn's own compositions. He was born to wealth and happy worldly circumstance, and never had to struggle with poverty or other ills. So his music is bright and genial, clever and pure, manly and refined. His "Songs Without Words" are among the classics of the piano; and his oratorio "The Elijah" ranks in popularity next to "The Messiah." It was written especially for the Birmingham Musical Festival—for Mendelssohn had a great affection for the English people, and liked London better than Berlin or Leipzig. He had a short life, but his early death, in 1849, seems to have been hastened by grief at the loss of a favorite sister.

A composer of a very different type was Robert Schumann, born at Zwickau, in Saxony, in 1810, and though he died at forty-six of a mental malady, his refined and poetic musical creations have left an indelible impress upon all art. His nature was too sensitive to stand contact with jarring circumstances and personalities and therefore he was a very reserved and taciturn man in everything except his music; in music his true poet's nature expressed itself freely and is marked by love, hope and sunshine as well as by a vein of romantic melancholy.

Schumann was both a good and a gifted man; a genuine poet, a delightful writer, a noted critic. He was an exemplary son and as a lover his faithfulness and devotion to Clara Wieck, who later became his wife, is known the world over. Proof of his love for children is easily found in his writing his famous "Album for the Young" when he was in greatest fame and highest in his creative powers. Schumann wanted to become a great pianist and to that end contrived a tiny machine of his own for exercising the third finger, which, we know, is not so supple as the other fingers. The machine hurt his hand, and he had to give up his ambition. But here again we have profited, for if Robert Schumann had been a great player, it is not likely that he would have been a great composer.

There is just one more very great name to be mentioned, and that is the name of Richard Wagner. Musical people have been making a lot of Wagner in recent years, perhaps in

WAGNER ENTERTAINING LISZT AND OTHER FRIENDS

return for the neglect he suffered during his life.

THE GREAT STORIES THAT WAGNER SET TO MUSIC

Wagner wrote great musical dramas upon which he prided himself very much. These include "Lohengrin," "Tannhäuser," "Die Meistersinger," "The Flying Dutchman," "Tristan and Isolde." He had an idea of his own about opera, and it was this—that the words are of equal importance with the music.

The older composers thought the music was everything, and the words of their operas were often on the verge of nonsense. Wagner changed all that, and if we read the words of his operas, we may enjoy the mere story perhaps almost as much as the music. He liked to deal with old German myths and legends and we find his tales of Lohengrin, Tristan and Tannhäuser exceedingly interesting. He, too, was a German, born at Leipzig in 1813. He had a troubled career until the erratic King Ludwig, of Bavaria, who was exceedingly interested in music, took him up and gave him money and a home, which saved him to the world. He died in 1883 and was buried at Bayreuth, his former home, where he had erected a specially constructed theater for the performance of his works.

OTHER NOTED EUROPEAN COMPOSERS

There are many other composers whose names will doubtless live for all time. It is here possible to mention only a few.

There is Verdi, perhaps the greatest Italian composer of the nineteenth century. Among his operas are such great successes as "Rigoletto," "Il Trovatore," "Aïda." Late in life he produced the great musical comedy, "Falstaff."

RICHARD WAGNER AND THE CHILDREN OF HIS MARVELOUS BRAIN

Sir Arthur Sullivan produced many delightful works, including "The Sorcerer," "H.M.S. Pinafore," "The Mikado," "The Gondoliers" and "Utopia." He was ably aided by his collaborator, Gilbert, who wrote the lyrics for Sullivan's light operas.

Weber must be mentioned for his "Der Freischütz"; Meyerbeer for his "Les Huguenots"; Donizetti for his "Lucia"; Bellini for his "Sonnambula," and Balfe for his ever fresh and ever welcome "Bohemian Girl." We must not overlook Gounod, the Frenchman, who gave us the always popular opera of "Faust." There is also the Italian Rossini who wrote "William Tell" and the famous "Barber of Seville."

EDWARD ALEXANDER MACDOWELL

Claude Debussy, a poetical Frenchman, created a type of tone-painting beauty through his personal style of writing that is different from that of all other composers. He is as beloved as was the painter, Monet, and for like reasons.

The "Hungarian wonder child" was the name given in early life to Franz Liszt, who ranks first among the great pianists of all time. He was a friend of Wagner who declared Liszt was "the one who first gave me faith in my work."

We should also speak of Tchaikovsky, the Russian master, whose "Pathetic" symphony is now as familiar as anything of Beethoven's; and of Brahms' whose work was characterized by grandeur of ideas and requires much study; and of Strauss, and of Sir Edward Elgar and of many more. Think of Bizet and his "Carmen," of Mascagni and his "Cavalleria Rusticana," of Leoncavallo and his "Pagliacci." There are also a host of others, but of these, the really great we may safely say, in the words of Shakespeare, "are not for an age but for all time."

MacDowell—Distinguished American Composer

Now we may turn to our great American composer and pianist whose art is representative of the best music that America has produced. He was born in New York City in 1861. While perhaps he may not be classed as one of the world's greatest composers, still he ranks among the foremost today. He had a happy faculty of introducing into his compositions touches of American folk-music, notably Indian.

Edward Alexander MacDowell came from Scotch-Irish forbears and his music is full of their love for and intimacy with Nature in her most romantic and strengthening forms. He drew and painted as well as he played the piano and when his mother took him to Paris to continue his studies in piano and composition his sketching was so promising that he was offered a three years free scholarship in the Beaux Arts.

Young Edward, however, was not to be turned aside from music and decided to pursue a musician's career. Even before his return to America, in 1888, his work had been generally recognized, and when he settled in Boston he found himself already established in the minds and hearts of the American people.

From 1896 to 1904 he was the head of the Department of Music at Columbia University, after which he resigned so that he might have more time for composing.

MacDowell died in 1908. Shortly thereafter a number of friends and admirers organized the MacDowell Colony and the composer's widow, who had been his highest inspiration and constant help, deeded to it the summer residence at Peterborough, N. H. Here creative artists of proven merit—composers, poets, painters, sculptors, prose writers may live at moderate cost and in an inspiring atmosphere work out their highest creative thoughts. This plan met with so much favor that soon cottages had to be built to accommodate the applicants. A special musical festival held annually in August now occupies a place of importance in the history of music festivals in the United States and the great majority of the works performed are by native composers. Not a few of the unusual features are composed in the colony itself.

American Advancement in Musical Creation

Music is making gigantic strides in America, and its artistic and educational force is active in nearly every county of our forty-eight states. The mere listing of American composers becomes a task even though it is a grateful one.

Early American Composers

Edward MacDowell holds, of course, the first place in this list, but even before his death, there were native musicians who contributed much that is worthy of life and performance.

THE ALEXANDER STUDIO

One of the studios at the MacDowell Colony, Peterborough, New Hampshire. Here, far from the madding crowd, the artist has a fitting place to express himself.

Among the early American composers was Dr. Lowell Mason, who wrote many of our best hymns; Stephen Foster, the father of our most beloved popular songs, and John K. Paine, a scholarly writer in large forms. The education of our earlier composers was largely gained in European conservatories.

Torch Bearers among American Composers

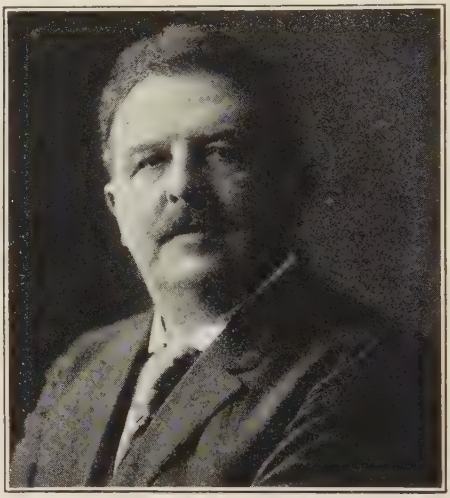
The group of older American writers of music, most of whom are still living, includes such well-known names as Frederick Grant Gleason, Mrs. H. H. A. Beach, George Chadwick, Arthur Foote, Horatio Parker, Henry K. Hadley, Henry Holden Huss, Edgar Stillman Kelly, Victor Herbert, John Philip Sousa, Arne Oldberg, Theodore

JOHN PHILIP SOUSA

Otterstrom, Frederick Converse, Frederick Stock, Reginald DeKoven, Adolph Weidig and Rosetter G. Cole. These writers have held high the torch of musical ideals, and the later writers owe them a debt which is not realized today.

The Newer School of American Composers

The newer school of American composers is largely made up of men who



VICTOR HERBERT

have derived their inspiration as well as their special training from native sources. Such a list includes Charles Wakefield Cadman, Thurlow Lieurance, Arthur Farwell, Mortimer Wilson, Henry Purmort Eames, Henry F. Gilbert and others. Some of these have successfully incorporated the atmosphere and character of the music of the American Indian in their works.

And then we must not overlook the inspiration of the Negro rhythms and melodies. The beauty and strength of the songs of slavery live today in the restatements and writings of Harry Burleigh, J. Rosamond Johnson and Nathaniel Dett, gifted Negroes of culture and accomplishments.

David W. Guion, the talented Texan, has turned for his inspiration to our old country dances, as well as to the songs of the Negro. Eric De Lamarter, in at least one important symphony,

has also turned to these old sources and, in addition, he has written much that classifies as "modern." The compositions of Charles Griffes should also be mentioned as a distinct contribution.

Howard Hansen, Leo Sowerby, Edward Collins and John Alden Carpenter represent the American modernist in the creative field. These men, and others, reflect in their music the moods and movements of the day—American folk song and dance, ragtime, jazz—each and all woven into musical tapestries, giving a vivid picture and an enduring record of the times.

J. ROSAMOND JOHNSON

THE IDEAL OF AMERICAN COMPOSERS

In American musical life today there is a tremendous activity striving to express the industrial as well as the social and spiritual conditions which surround us. Our modern music is a tonal story of the varied human interests around us. A typically American school of music is forming, and forming rapidly. What its ultimate rating may be when Father Time looks back from the vantage point of the year 2000, no one can say, but this we know: American composers are now sincerely and courageously seeking to reflect their own times.

CHARLES WAKEFIELD CADMAN

FREDERICK STOCK

LEADERS IN THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

FROM 1789 to 1815 there were very great troubles in the kingdom of France, and violent changes took place. The French monarchy was turned into a republic, so that there was no longer a king at the head of affairs, because it was said that every country ought to be ruled according to the will of the whole people who live in it, and not according to the wishes of one man or of the few who have wealth and power. After all, it was not very long before the French found themselves again being ruled by the will of one man, who became the Emperor Napoleon Bonaparte.

But the changes which took place before that make up the story of what is called the French Revolution. And some of these changes in the government of the country and the life of the people have continued to the present time in France itself, and some have been adopted since that time into other countries of Europe.

Now we are going to learn something about the men and women who made this French Revolution, or tried to prevent it; but we shall not be able to understand much about them unless we first of all try to imagine the state of things which made people so determined to have a change that they allowed all sorts of wicked and terrible things to be done rather than stay as they were. In England there was a free government—that is, the people ruled through the Parliament, and the king and the ministers had to obey the law like everyone else. But in France the king and his ministers could do very nearly as they liked, so long as they did not interfere with the privileges of the clergy or the nobles.

But the common people suffered grievously by reason of these very privileges; for in the country places the peasants were almost the slaves of the great landowners, who were called the seigneurs. And in nearly all the land, except in Brittany and the district called La Vendée, the seigneurs cared nothing for the needs or the sufferings of the peasants; and although the seigneurs and the clergy had to pay no taxes, the peasants were compelled to pay heavy taxes to the State and feudal dues to the seigneurs, which meant sometimes money and sometimes the produce of their lands. Besides all this, they had to labor for the seigneurs without pay

—all of which was very unlike anything that had been known in Great Britain for more than 400 years. There were many people who for a long time past had been saying that all this was very wrong, and had been pointing out that people in England were much more happy and prosperous, and among these we may try to remember the names of Voltaire and Diderot. But these two men did not arouse so much excitement as Jean Jacques Rousseau, who came from Switzerland; for he had been brought up very harshly, and had led a strange, wandering, discontented sort of life, failing in everything at which he tried his hand, until he took to expressing his ideas in books, which at once made him famous.

The idea he had got hold of was that civilization was all wrong, and that people would be much happier living in what he called a natural state, with very little law or government at all. He said that people who were strong and rich had persuaded the rest to serve them by pretending that they would protect them, and so had got the rulership into their own hands, and used it for their own advantage. In this way the poorer classes were robbed of their natural rights.

Rousseau, who taught that the will of the people should triumph

He maintained that everybody ought to make a new agreement or social contract, according to which everything should be settled by the will of the people; and that there should be no more kings or seigneurs or people who had privileges, but everything should be arranged in the way that the mass of the people thought best for themselves. This teaching of his about the rights of man and the social contract became very popular.

All the seigneurs belonged to a group of great families who kept themselves very much aloof from ordinary folk, and they are spoken of sometimes as the noblesse, and sometimes as the aristocrats. There were a few of the aristocrats who were very much in favor of some of the new ideas that Diderot or Voltaire or Rousseau were talking about. The king had not nearly enough money to carry on the government, especially as there had been great expenses, owing to a war with England, and he was advised that the only thing to be done was to summon an Assembly of the Three Estates—as the Noblesse, the Clergy, and the Commons were called—to consult them as to whether better arrangements could be made for governing the country. At this time there were two men who became very notable as leaders of the people, both of whom belonged to aristocratic families —one was Mirabeau, and the other was Lafayette.

The two men who might have saved France from the great terror

It was a very unfortunate thing that these two could not be friends, for what both of them wanted was to set up in France a government in which the voice of the people should be heard, and yet let the king and his ministers have a good deal of power—more, really, than the King of England had. Both of them had learned a good deal in England or in America; for Lafayette had come to America when he was only twenty, and had served under the great George Washington in the war which ended in the separation of the United States from England; so he had seen what Americans and Englishmen meant by freedom, and also how wise a man was General Washington.

Mirabeau had lived for some time in England, and had seen there how it

was possible for justice and law to rule everywhere without any oppression, and for both king and people to have a share in the government. But the least that either of them wanted would have made so great a change in France that the court and most of the aristocrats and the clergy would have nothing to say to them. And perhaps the saddest thing is that if King Louis had been a wiser man, those three working together might have made the French Revolution a peaceful affair, which would have set up in France a government not very unlike that of Great Britain.

THE GOOD KING LOUIS, WHO TRUSTED BAD COUNSELORS

Louis himself was a good man, who wished to do what was right and just. He was a brave man, too. But he was not wise, and he was not like some other kings who have had the wit to choose good advisers and trust them. Instead of that, he trusted people who gave him bad advice, and could see nothing but harm in the changes that Mirabeau and Lafayette demanded when the Three Estates were assembled in what was called the States-General and afterwards the National Assembly. It seemed to them that to take away the privileges of the noblesse and of the clergy would be robbery, and that the proper thing for the common people was not to govern but to obey their betters, among whom was Queen Marie Antoinette.

Mirabeau understood what was needed better than any other man in France. He was a man who lived a wild life privately, and was always greatly in debt, which set a good many people very much against him; and he was domineering, so that it was not easy to be friendly with him. But he was a wonderful orator; so that when the Assembly had come together bent on doing one thing, he could sometimes persuade it to agree to something altogether different. He would rouse people up to be enthusiastic when they were timid and hesitating; and in this way he had a great deal of power, though people were really afraid to trust him.

He was called the Tribune of the People, because he was so bold in demanding what he considered the people ought to have, and because he wanted the "privileged orders" to have their privileges taken away and to pay their share of the taxes.

HOW MIRABEAU TRIED TO BRING THE KING AND THE PEOPLE TOGETHER

But he saw, too, that many who had come to the Assembly had no idea as to what good government meant. The Assembly was not fit to be the real ruler; he wanted it to have power, but he knew that the only way to prevent terrible things happening was for him to become the real ruler himself. He wanted the people to trust him, and he wanted the king to trust him; but presently it came about that, while the king suspected him of being on the side of the people and against the crown, the people, and those who had most influence with them, suspected him of being really on the side of the crown against the people, when the thing he was striving to do was to unite crown and people for the good of both.

Several of the changes which Mirabeau wanted were made, but there was really no chance of bringing the king and the people into agreement after he died, which happened before the troubles had been going on for a very long time; for he tried to do such an immense amount of work that he wore himself out, and as soon as he fell ill, death overtook him very quickly.

Lafayette was a very different kind of person. He was a very popular and high-minded gentleman, who had won

THE ROYAL FAMILY CAPTURED BY THE MOB

With the fall of the Bastille the power of Louis XVI was gone. He determined to escape with his family from Paris by night but when the royal family reached Varennes they were recognized, stopped and brought back to Paris and carefully guarded in the Tuileries Palace. Led by fierce demagogues, the mob gradually became more violent, and on June 20, 1792, the anniversary of the oath in the tennis-court, forty thousand people marched to the Tuileries, burst into the palace, and insulted the royal family, as shown here. The queen is standing with her children behind a table.

The Girondins had been allied with the Jacobins, and together they overthrew the monarchy. But in the dreadful massacres of prisoners by the Jacobins the Girondins had no part, and, indeed, they had tried to prevent the bloodshed. Then, when the Jacobins who were all cruel and bloodthirsty ruffians, felt sufficiently powerful, they sent the Girondins to the scaffold in large numbers, as shown in this picture. The mob in Paris enjoyed seeing the victims go to execution, and mocked them as they went through the streets to the scaffold.

great praise as a soldier when he was fighting in America under George Washington. After the States-General had come together, and had been turned into the National Assembly, it began to be very difficult to keep order, because everyone was in a state of excitement.

Lafayette, who tried to keep order in Paris and displeased all parties

So the better class of the citizens in Paris were enrolled, as soldiers in what was called the National Guard, to keep order; and Lafayette was made their general. He was very popular among them, and some people began to think that Lafayette meant to make himself the real master by the help of his soldiers, like Julius Cæsar in Rome or Oliver Cromwell in England. Besides, it was not very easy for the poor people to believe that so fine a gentleman as Lafayette cared much about them; and the noblesse hated him because they thought he had deserted their order; and the queen and court disliked him because they thought he was trying to become dictator. At last, when there was a great riot, and Lafayette had to order his soldiers to attack the mob, the common folk liked him less than ever, and he found that even his soldiers were only half inclined to obey him. He always wanted to check violence; but he could not sway men as Mirabeau could sway even those who did not trust him. So when more violent men got the upper hand, Lafayette no longer commanded the National Guard. Later on, when France declared war against Austria and Prussia, he was sent to command the French army; but Paris became so disturbed that he wanted to take the French troops back there, and when he found that he could not do so, he would not remain in command, but left the country.

How Lafayette helped to bring back a king to France

As for what befell him afterwards, he was made prisoner by the Austrians, and after spending some years in prison he was set free. Later, he helped in the restoration of the Bourbon king; and, at the end of his long life, he helped in another little revolution when the Bourbons were turned out again and their cousin, Louis Philippe, was made king in their place.

Now let us look at the king and queen, whose story is so tragical. Louis always meant well, and would have been quite willing to grant much more power to the people, and to put an end to bad laws and customs; but the people round him were always persuading him that if he allowed one thing or another to be done, the king would never again have any power; and Louis thought that a king had no right to give up his power. So he could never make up his mind either to trust Mirabeau or any other of the leaders of the people, or, on the other hand, to take up his stand boldly as a monarch who was determined that his own will should be obeyed. In one way he was a brave man, for he had no fear of death, but he had not the other kind of courage which enables a man to resolve on a plan of action in which there are risks, and to carry it through in spite of dangers and difficulties.

How the king and queen tried to escape from France in the dark

Soon after the death of Mirabeau, the king and queen thought the best thing they could do was to take flight out of France, and then perhaps other kings would help them to recover their power, for the queen was the sister of the Emperor of Austria.

They made preparations secretly, and fled by night from Paris in a carriage, pretending to be just a gentleman and his wife. But at a place near

the frontier the king was recognized when he got out of his carriage, and they were stopped and sent back to Paris, where they were kept prisoners. Louis accepted the new constitution, or rules for governing the country, which the Assembly had prepared, and so he was still king. A new Assembly was called, but the king had no able men about him now whom he could make ministers, and the wisest men whom he tried would not do as he wished, or serve him if he did not do as they wished. At this time, because the Austrian Emperor and the King of Prussia threatened to interfere, Louis was forced to declare war against them. And at the same time the men who were called Jacobins, which was the name of a club or association to which they belonged were stirring up feeling against the monarchy, and Paris was getting very much excited.

A MOB THAT BROKE INTO A PALACE AND MADE THE KING WEAR A RED CAP

One day there was a great procession, which found its way into the royal palace of the Tuileries; and the King of France was obliged to set on his head the red cap of liberty. The queen, too, had to set one on the head of the little Prince Royal, the heir to the throne. No real harm was done that time; but when ill news came from the war, and the Prussians made a proclamation that Paris would be punished if the king were hurt, the people became furious. The royal palace was attacked by a mob thirsting for blood; the valiant Swiss Guards, who defended it stoutly, were cut to pieces. But the king and queen had fled with the rest of the royal family, and taken refuge with the Assembly. Then, later, there came another new Assembly, which was full of Jacobins, and of others who wanted a republic, who were called Girondins; and the new Assembly proclaimed that France was now a republic and the king and queen were merely citizens. And even before this the Jacobins had put to death a number of royalists, or supporters of the king, who had been thrown into prison, in what were called the September massacres. The next thing was to bring the king himself to trial, as Charles I had been tried in England just 140 years before. He was tried by the Assembly itself, and condemned to death.

A ROYAL PRINCE WHO VOTED FOR THE KING'S DEATH

Like Charles the First, Louis showed a royal dignity and fortitude. He was beheaded, not with an axe like Charles, but by an instrument called the guillotine, which had been brought into regular use in France by this time. King Louis's own cousin, Prince Philip of Orleans, was one of those who voted for his death.

The poor queen and her children remained prisoners for a long time. Marie Antoinette greatly deserves to be pitied, for though she had not always been wise, yet, when misfortune came upon her, she behaved with splendid courage; and it has always been counted among the wickedest deeds of the Jacobins that she, too, was sent to the guillotine by them, nearly a year after her husband.

She was not yet forty years old when she was slain; but the long, terrible months of anxiety had changed her so, that she seemed almost an old woman. When she became Queen of France, she was a beautiful and attractive girl who had never known what it was to have her will crossed, and had been taught to take it for granted that kings and queens have a right to go their own way, so that she always encouraged the king to resist. When she died, she died like a queen.

One woman is famous who was on the side of the Revolution. The party

who wanted a republic in France was divided in two, the Girondins and the Jacobins; and of these the Jacobins were much the fiercer. For the Girondins wanted a republic like that of ancient Rome; they did not wish to destroy for the pleasure of destroying.

THE NOBLE MADAME ROLAND WHO DIED BECAUSE SHE TRIED TO SAVE OTHERS

Among the Girondins, Madame Roland had great influence, and was accounted a woman both noble and wise. But after the king had been slain, the Jacobins got the upper hand altogether, and turned upon the Girondins, who wished to check bloodshed. Many of them were flung into prison, among whom was Madame Roland; and many were sent to the guillotine, though they had striven their hardest for liberty. And so it was that Madame Roland died in the same way as Marie Antoinette. There are three men who wrought the worst evils in the Revolution who are commonly named together and of these one came very near to being a great man. This was Danton—terrible, fearless, ruthless. It was he who caused the September massacres, because he thought that was the only way to make sure that there would not be a rising of the royalists, just at the moment when it seemed that foreign armies might be marching on Paris. And it was he who spoke these fierce words, when the kings of Europe seemed to be gathering their forces to crush the French Republic: "To the kings, we will fling down the head of a king as the gage of battle"—meaning that Louis should be beheaded. But after that he would have joined hands with the Girondins in checking bloodshed, but they would not join with him; so he held by the Jacobins, yet still strove to stay their bloodthirstiness, desiring only to slay when he thought it needful to make opponents afraid. And again the more cruel among them got the upper hand, and Danton, in his turn, was sent to the guillotine.

The second of the three was Marat, who called himself the "friend of the people," foul of speech, craving for blood, ever urging death for the aristocrats. He did not die by the guillotine, for his wickedness so stirred the heart of a girl named Charlotte Corday that she thought it was her mission to free the world from such a monster. So she came to Paris, and, being admitted to speak with him, drew a dagger and slew him; for which deed she, too, gave up her life under the guillotine.

The third was for a time the most powerful of them all. This was Maximilien Robespierre, a little, ordinary looking man, who would have been simply a respectable citizen if he had remained in private life. But he had one idea in his head which he was quite determined to carry out. This was that the will of what he called the "Sovereign People" must rule, and the way to bring that about was to destroy everything that could possibly stand in the way—kings or aristocrats, Girondins or Jacobins, men or women, young or old. He got all the power in his own hands, till at last, week after week, the guillotine was killing fifty people every day.

THE END OF THE TERROR AND THE DEATH OF ROBESPIERRE

Then even his own supporters grew weary, and turned upon him; and he, too, went to the guillotine. When his head fell, those who stood by shouted for joy. With his death, the Reign of Terror came to an end, and the ruling of the French Republic passed into the hands of a group of people called the Directory. Here in after time Napoleon Bonaparte first served the Republic, and then overthrew it and made himself emperor.

WORLD'S GREATEST SCIENTISTS

It is not an easy thing to select the greatest scientists of all time. There are many who have opened up new vistas through the work they have done but our story tells of ten of the world's real scientists, who in the opinion of Professor Thomson, editor of the "Outline of Science," are entitled to rank as the greatest in the world. These are men who have, in their own domains, really made the world new. They are not the inventors who follow the trails blazed by the scientists, but they are the revealers of new principles, men who have indeed laid the foundation stones of science.

THE YOUTH WHO CAME TO ATHENS AND LAID THE FOUNDATIONS OF SCIENCE AND PHILOSOPHY

BACK in the fourth century B. C. there came to Athens from a northern Greek colony a youth who sought the great Plato. The master was away but the young Aristotle waited three years for him to return, and afterwards became known as "the intellect of the school" of Plato. The student went on to shatter many of the Platonic doctrines and lives in history as the greatest Greek scientist. He was dissatisfied with the myths and fables about many common things and said, "I want to know." He had heard much argument about how the chicken came from the shell. He took the simple method of opening a shell every day and observing how far the chick had progressed. His discovery of animal development marked a new era in science. He laid the foundations of comparative anatomy. He did not believe, as most others did, that the bats were birds or that whales were fishes. He knew that both bats and whales were mammals. For hours at a time he carefully watched the movements of starfish and sea-urchins. He was interested not only in the structure of animals, but also in their lives and how they behaved in the struggle for existence.

At Athens Aristotle taught in the Lyceum, and this name has come down to us today as that of a place of instruction, but the more common name is the Peripatetic School, which comes from the Greek word "peripatos," meaning a walk. The master used to walk up and down in his garden as he taught his pupils, and this custom lives in the name of the school.

Aristotle wrote about his work, but it was not until after the Renaissance, or revival of learning, that his works were properly studied and carefully interpreted. Scientists today realize that very much of our knowledge of classified science is due to the work of this ancient Greek, and today we are following many lines of thought marked out by this pioneer.

THE SCIENTIST WHO MADE A TELESCOPE FROM AN ORGAN PIPE

Hundreds of years later a youth in Pisa began to study the principles of

Aristotle. At the age of nineteen he watched the great lamp swinging in the cathedral. Many others had done the same thing but it remained for Galileo to conceive the idea of a pendulum swinging to and fro as a means for measuring time, and from his observations resulted the astrological clock.

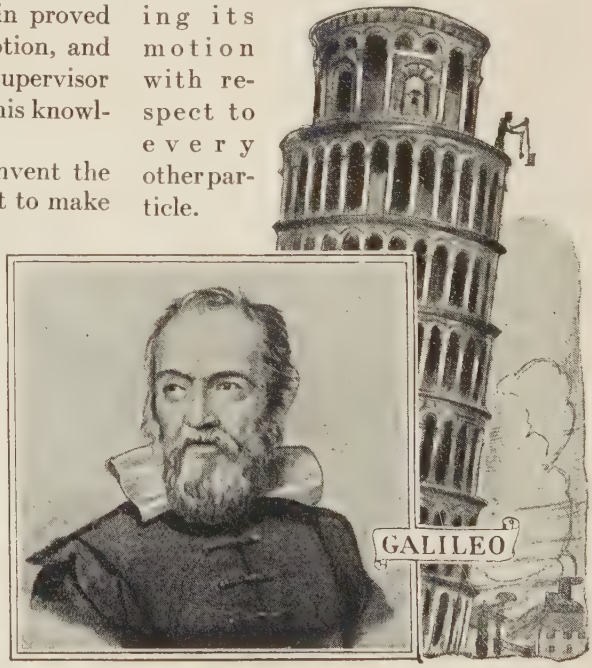
Beginning as a student of medicine, Galileo abandoned this to take up mathematics and in 1589 he was appointed professor of that subject in the University of Pisa.

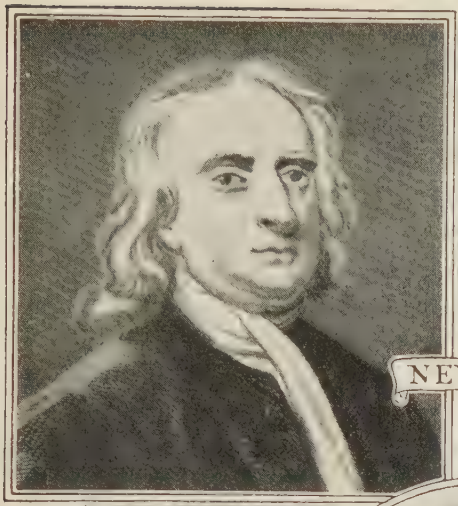
At this time everybody believed that heavy bodies fell faster than light ones. Galileo climbed the Leaning Tower in his native city and dropped from the ledge at the same time a ten-pound and a one-pound weight. They hit the ground together and the revolutionary law was announced that, making allowance for air resistance, all bodies fall from the same height in equal time. Further demonstrations again proved his now famous Laws of Motion, and today every construction supervisor and every mechanic acts on this knowledge.

Galileo did not actually invent the telescope, but he was the first to make large use of it and develop it. His first instrument was made from a piece of organ pipe fitted with a lens at each end. His telescopes led him to the discovery of the rotation of the earth on its axis and the revolving of the earth round the sun. He found that the moon was not the smooth surface it had been considered, but that it had ups and downs and that it shone only by reflected light. The publication of his astronomical findings resulted in his trial by the inquisition. His judges sentenced him to prison, but his term was soon commuted and he went to live in Sienna.

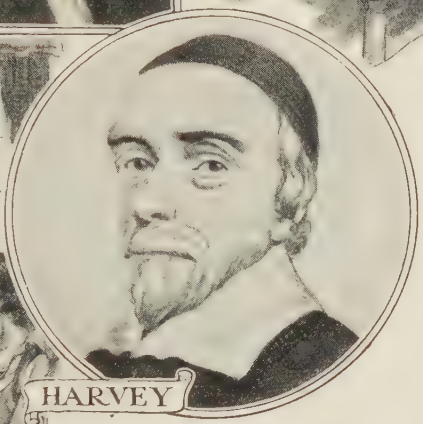
"NATURE AND NATURE'S LAWS LAY HIDDEN IN NIGHT; GOD SAID, 'LET NEWTON BE,' AND ALL WAS LIGHT."—POPE

On Christmas day and in the same year that Galileo died there was born a wee child, so small that his mother said he could have been put in a quart mug. This child grew up to be one of the world's great scientists and was knighted Sir Isaac Newton. Famed as the discoverer of much in the realm of science, he is revered most highly for formulating and making known the principle of universal gravitation. This has been called "the Perfect Law," and it explains how every particle of matter in the universe is changing its motion with respect to every other particle.





NEWTON



HARVEY

The boyhood of young Newton is interesting. He was timid and the lowest in school. One day a boy gave him a terrific kick in the stomach, whereupon Isaac veered round and administered a good beating to the bully. His ambition to succeed in school was aroused and he went to the head of his class. The scientific trend of his mind was shown in his construction of a tread-mill run by a mouse, which he called the Miller. Later he went to Trinity College, and his researches were constant until, as a mark of the esteem in which he was held, we find him elected to the Royal Society in 1672.

Some authorities reject the story of the falling apple but others hold it as authentic. At any rate this story illustrates the trend of Newton's mind and the subject of gravitation engaged his attention for many years of study. Next in importance is his study of light. He used a prism and showed how light is composed of the seven colors of the rainbow. Like Galileo, he carried on much work with the telescope. The humility of this great man is shown in his own statement, "If I have seen farther, it is by standing on the shoulders of others."

THE MAN WHO TAUGHT PEOPLE THAT THE BLOOD CIRCULATES

It seems hard to believe that a few hundred years ago nobody knew of the

circulation of the blood in the body. The scientist who discovered this great fact and demonstrated it upon the platform deserves to rank with the truly great. This was the accomplishment of William Harvey, whose treatise, "On the Movement of the Heart and Blood in Animals," has been called the most important single essay on any medical or biological subject.

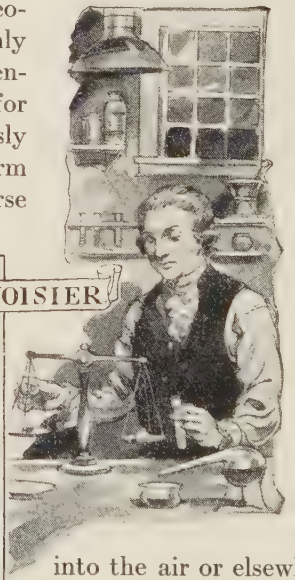
Like the other great scientists, Harvey went to work to prove his contention and used a hand lens to watch the circulation of the blood in the web of a frog's foot. He did not even have a microscope to work with. He not only observed circulation but he figured out the mechanics of the flow. He changed the methods of all physicians when he showed the heart to be a pump, forcing pure blood through the body and impure blood to the lungs.

Harvey did much to disabuse people's minds of the belief commonly held in his time, of spontaneous generation. People thought that a fly, for instance, could spring spontaneously from a piece of meat and that a worm could develop directly from a horse hair. Harvey studied embryos and said, "Every living creature comes from a living creature." This man who straightened out much of the tangled thinking of his day was surely a great scientist.

THE FRENCH SCIENTIST WHO PAID WITH HIS HEAD

The angry French mob in the days of the Revolution cried, "The Republic has no need of chemists," and in their ignorant fury condemned one of the world's greatest scientists to the guillotine. Antoine Laurent Lavoisier lived in Paris and his great contribution was the idea of the conservation of matter. Before his time there were no real chemists, only the alchemists who busied themselves with trying to change baser metals into gold.

Lavoisier introduced the method of the balance as a much bigger factor than it had ever been before. He said that when one starts out with a substance of a given weight, even though he puts it through different processes and gets something far different—gases, solid or liquids—an addition of all the end products should give the same total as the original weight. Of course one has to be careful that nothing escapes into the air or elsewhere. The significance of this discovery is immense in manufacturing and has led to countless discoveries regarding products.



LAVOISIER

Lavoisier assailed the belief in "phlogiston," which was held to be a

certain material of fire which, when released, was the cause of flame, heat and light in inflammable substances. He demonstrated that oxygen was the factor that brought about combustion and he showed that in burning, rusting or explosion it was a matter of oxidation taking place. Every person whose work has anything to do with chemistry owes a debt of gratitude to this great chemist who lost his head in the French Revolution.

Workers on the Principle of the Conservation of Energy

Along with the law of the conservation of matter there is our now well-known law of the conservation of energy. Here it is hard to choose the outstanding figure. There are the names of Joule and Mayer and Kelvin, but to Helmholtz probably should go the chief honor.

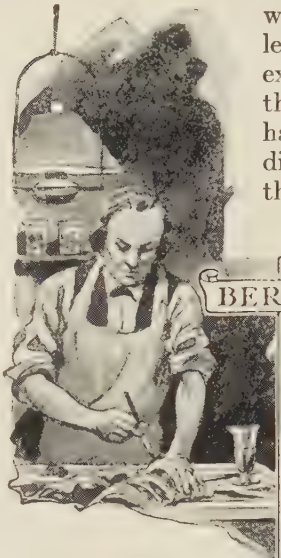
Said Helmholtz: "There is no power lost or created, but one kind of power can be changed into another." Indeed all about we see this to be true. Our great waterfalls present the fact of falling water and the craftsman turns this motion into electricity. Coal and gas are converted into steam, and we see horsepower being changed into heat. We may go still further back and see that the horse gets his energy from the food he eats. The process of getting nitrogen from the air has to do with this law and the feast or famine of the world may even depend upon the principle of the vision which Helmholtz clearly saw.

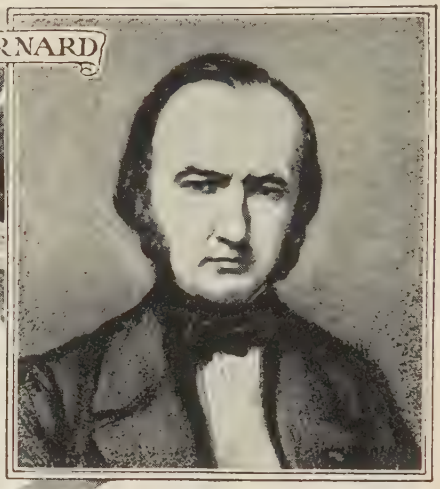
The World's Premier Electrical Genius

Michael Faraday has a right to a place among the great for his epochal work in the field of electricity. What a line of builders have come after him—yet when Faraday lived people thought electricity was something that flowed like water in a river. Most people did not even think anything about this great force. To all it was a great mystery, and Faraday has the honor of making electricity understandable. He discovered that it could be induced in a wire that lay close to one carrying a current. This paved the way for countless inventions.

He followed out the experiments of Sir Humphrey Davy, his early teacher, who once said, when asked what was his greatest discovery—Michael Faraday. The discoveries of Faraday became the basis for the dynamo and

from his work in chemistry, electricity and magnetism have resulted the telegraph, the telephone, the cable and innumerable applications of electricity and electromagnetism. This man really opened the flood-gates in his realm of science.

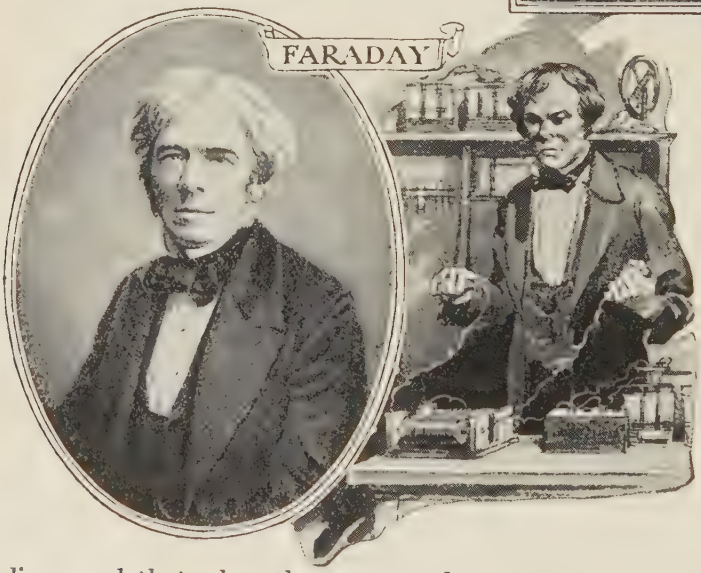




WHAT THE DUCTLESS GLANDS DO

The eighth scientist is the man who found out what the ductless glands have to do with the human body. Claude Bernard studied the two little red patches near the Adam's apple and discovered that when they grew and developed normally the body developed, but when they failed the body became a caricature of itself with neck swellings and goiters. He found that when persons suffering from functionless glands were fed or had injected an extract of the thyroid glands of sheep they could be changed into healthy, happy individuals. This marvelous discovery was a great blessing for thousands.

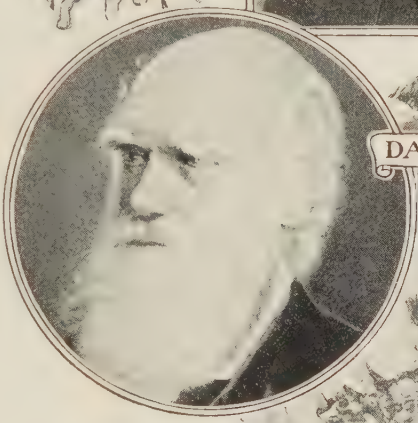
Physicians had been saying for a long time, "The liver makes bile; therefore the function of the liver is to make bile." Bernard studied this and from experiments on living animals discovered an internal secretion in the liver that enabled it to store up sugar and serve it out to the blood as the body required it.



This led to an understanding of diabetes, something absolutely incomprehensible before.

Bernard first proved that within the body there are continual building up

PASTEUR



DARWIN

and tearing down processes. He showed how, by gradual steps, food is taken in and converted into living tissue, and how the material is again broken down. We call this process metabolism and it is to Bernard that the credit for this discovery should go. His investigations into the changes in living matter and his explanations of the chemical processes within the body place him alongside Harvey.

THE MAN WHO WORKED OUT THOUGHTS ALREADY SPOKEN

Darwin is the only scientist on our list who did not make a great original discovery. A man of infinite patience, methodical and painstaking, he sought to find out whether a thing was false or true. He spent twenty years in writing one book.

It was Darwin who revised the idea of a world standing still and showed the world as one of motion. He showed that the red beech in the garden was sprung from just an ordinary beech and how it had been changed in the centuries until its leaves had become red. He indicated how animals could be improved through breeding and today stock breeders everywhere owe him a debt of thanks for his work.

His most important book, "The Origin of Species," (1859) set forth his doctrine of natural selection and the survival of the fittest. Although pri-

marily an explanation of adaptation, it paved the way for the general theory of evolution. His work revolutionized the methods of work and the aims of natural history. Later (1871) he extended his theory to include man in his book, "The Descent of Man." His later life was spent in a series of studies designed to demonstrate his theory.

THE BIOLOGICAL CONTROL OF LIFE

Louis Pasteur, who with Lavoisier, has also been told about in our story of Paris in another volume, is here recorded as the tenth in our list of the world's great scientists. He was the man who showed that man can conquer the unseen enemies that beset him in disease, that the ravages of fever and plague can be stayed from overcoming the land.

He worked out means of preserving the purity of milk and today we have a household term in "pasteurized" milk. He found microbes responsible for the fermentation in beer and wines. He discovered the cause and cure of anthrax and hydrophobia, cholera and diphtheria. He changed the whole theory of disease and was responsible for the present serum treatment. He saved the silk industry for France by isolating and overcoming the germ that was doing deadly work.

The work of Pasteur lives after him in the Pasteur Institute where such wonderful research in bacteriology is carried on that the place has been called "the world's greatest life-saving institution."

Thus we come to the end of our list of ten great scientists. We have not included any living workers, although when the recorder of a hundred or two hundred years looks back he may see some of the very greatest coming from our day. At any rate the real claim to fame of those mentioned here cannot be denied. They have blazed the way to knowledge and to wisdom.

THE DEMOCRACY OF SCIENCE

We often wonder where all the great scientists come from. Were their fathers unusual men? Did they inherit some special talents that we may not hope to have?

It is very interesting to see just what the family of this or that scientist was about. Taking some of the men we have just been telling of, together with some others almost equally great, let us see what the scientist's father did.

One is a tanner's son, the next a clothmaker's, then a weaver's, a tailor's, a saddler's, a shipbuilder's, a farmer's, a blacksmith's and then we find two coming from the nobility. This looks like equal opportunity for all and seems to prove the truth, at least for a chance at scientific fame, of the saying that "all men are created equal."

The chief requirements which science demands include a mind open to the facts, a desire to learn the truth, a feeling that the past is not a closed and sealed book.

Study about these and other great scientists is a helpful thing for each one of us. It makes us more democratic. It gives us a clue to the reasons behind many things. It tells us much about civilization and makes our minds open to the new revelations that are being made faster today than ever before.

The scientists are the men and women who are paving the way for new industries. Go into any great factory today and the way things are being done depends on the scientific work of those who have gone before. We even hear about scientific management, and there is today a tendency to put more and more of our studies into the group called scientific. By cultivating the scientific spirit, who knows what boy or girl may grow up to become a great scientist.

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THE HOME OF SHAKESPEARE

LEADING WRITERS—Foreign

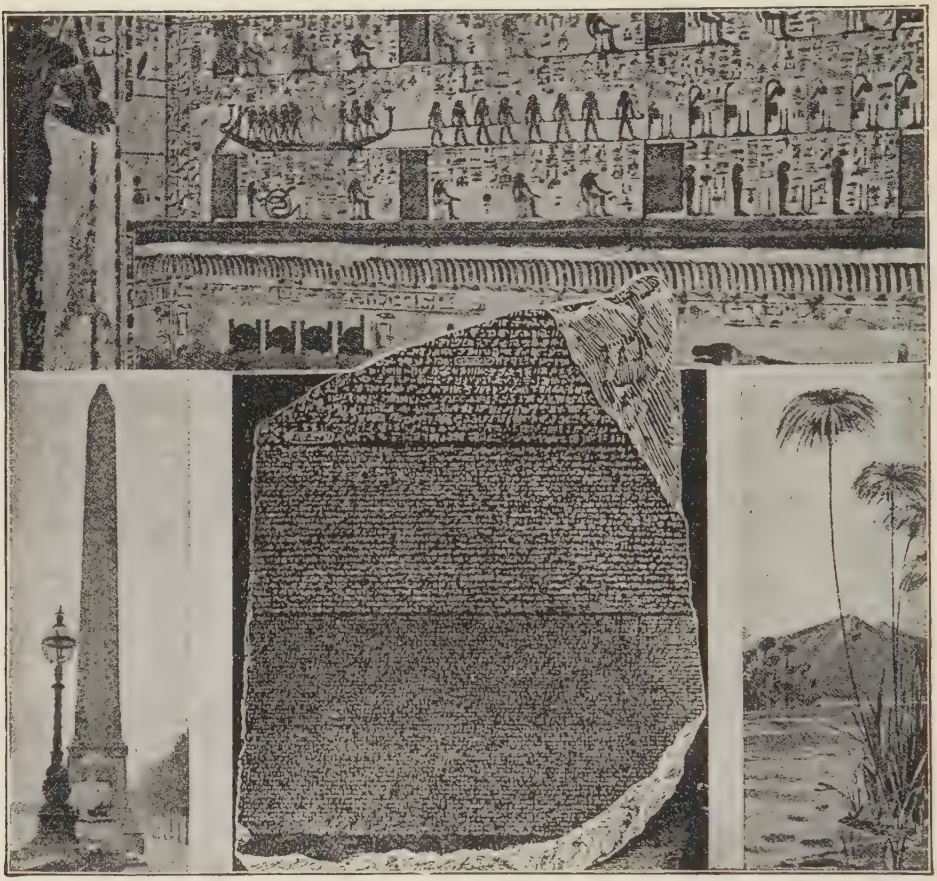
IN our time, the world is divided into many countries, in which men and women speak different languages; and books of all kinds are written in all these languages. The first human beings, however, did not write at all, and talked only in a way which would seem very crude and unsatisfactory to us. Little by little, as civilization grew, language grew with it; and people learned more complete ways of expressing their thoughts. The invention of the alphabet was one of the greatest steps in human progress. This did not come all at once, but by many stages, lasting over thousands of years. A kind of rude picture-writing came first; and this was gradually improved until a real alphabet was formed. At first, men wrote only letters, memoranda and inscriptions of different kinds; but before long they went further; and real literature began to exist. Hymns to the gods worshipped by the different people, laws for the government of the country, praises of great men, especially rulers whom it was desired to please, or whose memory others wished to honor, histories and traditions of the tribe or nation, came first.

A KING WHO WAS THE FIRST GREAT WRITER

Most of the oldest writings are lost, except for inscriptions carved on tombs and monuments. But in Egypt, India and some other countries, fragments of other old writings have been saved or discovered. The oldest poetry is mostly in the form of hymns, some of which are very beautiful and noble. The first poet known to us was a king of Egypt, who is called by scholars Akhenaton. He was a very great man, many centuries ahead of his time, and has been called "the first individual in history." He was a true reformer of the noblest kind, and tried to help his people in every way, and especially to give them a better religion than

HOW THE WORLD'S STORY WAS FIRST TOLD

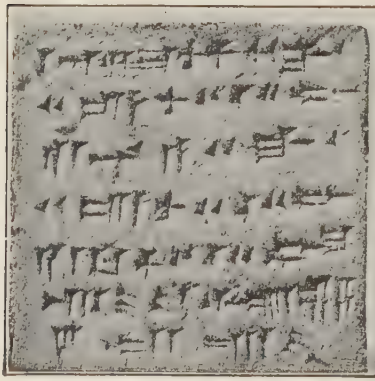
The Egyptians painted the walls of their temples and tombs with strange letters and pictures which tell the history of Egypt. This is from the wall of a tomb where the paint is still fresh, though it is thousands of years old



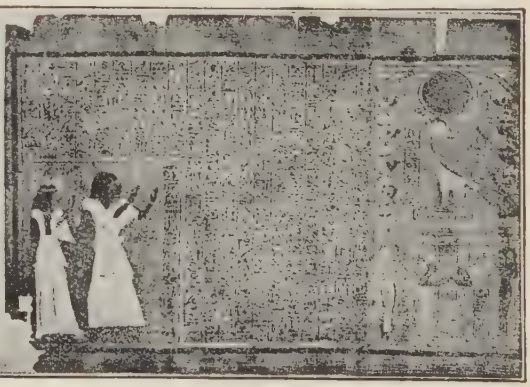
Cleopatra's Needle, once in Egypt, and now standing in Central Park, New York, shows the strange writing on the Egyptian monuments.

The Rosetta Stone, which taught us to read the strange writing the Egyptians left behind. It said the same thing in three kinds of writing, and one kind was the Egyptian. Men knew one of the other kinds of writing, so that they were able to find out what the Egyptian writing meant.

There was no paper in old Egypt, and the people wrote on bricks and on the dried bark of the papyrus plant, here shown growing.



An early way of writing was to mark soft clay and bake it into a brick like this.



This is a piece of papyrus, showing how the Egyptians used it to write upon. Nearly all these things are in the British Museum.

their priests were forcing them to follow. He lived about 3,500 years ago; and his poetry is wonderfully lofty in its thought.

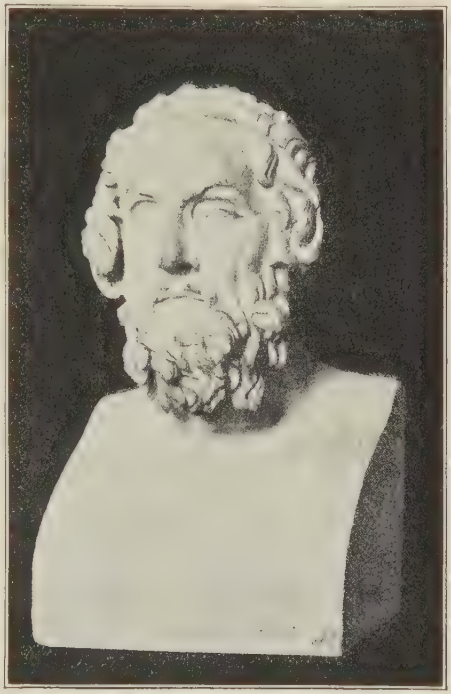
Story-telling, too, began very early. We are all fond of stories; and fiction has often been found to be the best way to tell the highest truth. The eastern people especially have always been fond of listening to stories, as we know from reading the Arabian Nights, where we see that a Caliph is even willing to pardon a criminal, if the culprit is able to interest him by telling him a lively tale. We find very old Egyptian and Indian fables in both poetry and prose, some of which are very famous from the popularity which they enjoyed for many centuries in their own land.

Other forms of writing developed much later, history and religious and moral treatises coming among the first, biography, philosophy and essays a little later, drama soon springing up as a form of poetry or a means of celebrating religious festivals, science slowly taking shape in the later centuries.

Among the lasting works of literature, poetry came into the field a little earlier than prose. This is perhaps because a long step had been taken toward civilization before writing came into use, and poetry handed down from mouth to mouth was easier to remember than prose. The great literature of the world, which is still read with enjoyment, practically begins in ancient Greece. Some of the old Indian epics are recognized as very great for their age; but their way of thinking is strange to us; and we know next to nothing about their authors.

HOMER, THE FIRST GREAT POET

The first great name among the Greek poets is that of Homer. We know so little of his life that some scholars say that no such man ever existed, but that the Iliad and the Odyssey were put together out of many shorter songs sung by wandering minstrels. However, this is a modern theory; and the Greeks of the classical period always thought of Homer as a real man. He was declared to be a singer and reciter, who was blind, and who wandered from place to place re-



HOMER

peating his poems for a living. He wrote some other poems; but those named are the most famous. The Iliad tells part of the story of the war of the Greeks against Troy, in which many thousands of them joined to punish the son of the Trojan king for carrying off Helen, the most beautiful woman of Greece, who was the wife of one of their chiefs. Homer's great poem begins with a quarrel between

Agamemnon, leader of the Greek army, and Achilles the invincible hero. It describes the bravery of many leaders on both sides. Although written mainly in favor of the Greeks, it is so fair to both sides that most readers give their greatest affection to Hector, the Trojan hero, who defends his country against all odds, and is finally killed in single combat with Achilles. The Odyssey tells of the wonderful adventures of Odysseus, better known to English and American readers as Ulysses, the wisest man in the Greek army, after the end of the Trojan War.

To the Greeks, Homer was more than a delightful poet. His poems had an authority for them almost equal to that of the sacred books of any religion to its followers. They quoted them as authority on many subjects, and were very proud of tracing their descent from the heroes described by the great poet.

Other Greek Poets That Are Remembered

Another of the old Greek poets was Hesiod, who put the religious beliefs and the social customs of his time into verse. He was also very popular. Afterwards came a number of lyric poets, of whose work only fragments have survived. Alcaeus and Anacreon are among the most noted. The poetess Sappho was perhaps one of the most talented of them all. Recent discoveries have given us more of her work than was formerly known, and mark her as one of the most exquisite of the poets of all time. Of later Greek poets, Theocritus deserves to be named as the inventor of pastoral poetry, in which the charms of country life are sung.

This is a scene from the drama, "Oedipus Rex," written by the Greek, Sophocles, in the fifth century B. C., and played now, using the translation of Professor Gilbert Murray. Sir John Martin-Harvey takes the part of Rex. In this scene Oedipus Rex encounters Teiresias, the Seer, who denounces him as the murderer of Laius.

Greeks who wrote plays

The first great dramatists were Greeks of the classical period, most of them living in Athens, which was then the centre of culture. Aeschylus, Sophocles and Euripides were the masters of tragedy and Aristophanes of comedy. Many of their best plays have come down to us. There were others whom we know only by name and by a few fragments of their work. The best known of later Greek playwrights was Menander. He was a writer of comedies of everyday life.

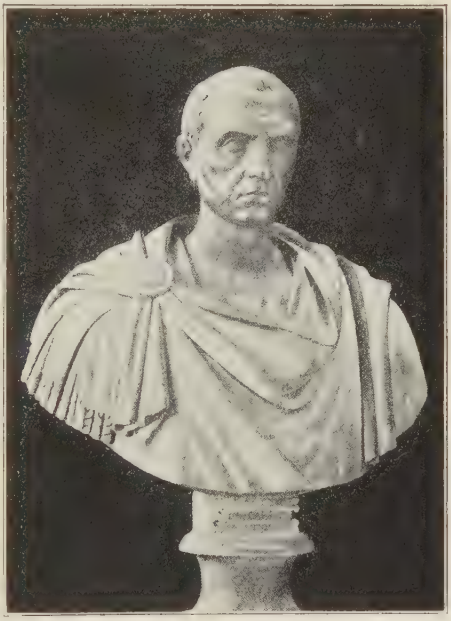
Other great Greek writers

The Greeks were foremost in every branch of literature which had been developed in their time. Herodotus, Thucydides and Xenophon in history, Plato and Aristotle in philosophy, Demosthenes in oratory, are only a few of the greatest names. To understand our own great writers, we must go back to the Greeks, who laid the foundation of the best literature of the world.

Romans whose writings last

The Romans produced many writers of talent; but most of them were very evidently guided largely by their Greek models. However, Virgil's great epic, the Aeneid, in which he describes the wanderings and adventures of Aeneas, who was believed to have escaped from Troy at its destruction, and to have founded the Latin colony in Italy, out of which Rome grew, is much more than a feeble copy of Homer. If Cicero did not quite equal the sublimity of Demosthenes, he was a very great orator, who has inspired many of later times. Julius Caesar, one of the greatest men who ever lived, has left us histories which are models of clear and simple, yet interesting and effective narrative. Livy, Tacitus and Sallust as historians, Horace and Ovid as poets, are among those who deserve to be read and studied for their thought and style.

Since the days of the Greeks and Romans, the literature of the world has grown to such an extent that no one person could possibly become intimate with all that is worth while in it. All that can be done here is to mention a few of the principal writers of modern Europe, with whom everybody should try to become acquainted, before telling a little more fully about the leading authors in our own country.



JULIUS CAESAR

Dante and his dream love for Beatrice

In Dante, Italy has given us one of the greatest poets of all time. He lived in Florence, in the thirteenth century, and saw many troubles. Drawn into the bitter factional struggles of the time, he was exiled from his native city while still a comparatively young man, and never saw her again, although living for many years as a poor

wanderer from city to city. While he found kind treatment at times, he was often humiliated and made to suffer in his tenderest feelings. As life was harsh to him, his only happiness was that of the imagination, which led him into other worlds. His dream love for the lady known to us as Beatrice, the sight of whom made him almost faint with ecstacy, although he scarcely exchanged a word with her from his first boyhood vision of her beauty to the day of her death in the prime of her still almost youthful charms, was more real to him than his actual domestic life in the days before his exile.

Dante's poems are all of a highly serious nature, and are expressions of the highest genius. Most famous among them is his great epic, in which he describes himself as wandering in a strange world, from which he is led by the spirit of Virgil through all the circles of hell and purgatory, and finally received by Beatrice in paradise, before being sent back to earth to tell his marvelous story. While his theology is too hard and stern to suit modern tastes, and many of his suppositions are proved impossible by the facts of science, the vigor of his descriptions and the beauty of his language give us constant pleasure.

THE SPANISH WRITER WHOSE HERO FOUGHT WINDMILLS

The greatest contribution of Spain to the literature of the world is the entertaining story of Don Quixote, by Miguel Cervantes, who was born in 1547, and died in 1616. Cervantes was an old soldier, who went through a number of warlike adventures in brave fashion. His famous story was written to ridicule the old tales of chivalry, which were at that time very popular. Don Quixote is represented as a gentleman who has his head turned by reading these narratives, and who imagines himself called upon to become a knight errant, and to wander about correcting wrongs and looking for adventures. He takes the arms of a windmill to be a party of giants, against whom he must fight, and in the same way imagines that he sees enemies and enchantments everywhere. So he is led into the most amusing catastrophes, and only upon his deathbed becomes entirely cured of his folly. Cervantes died in poverty, but has become one of the most famous writers of any country.

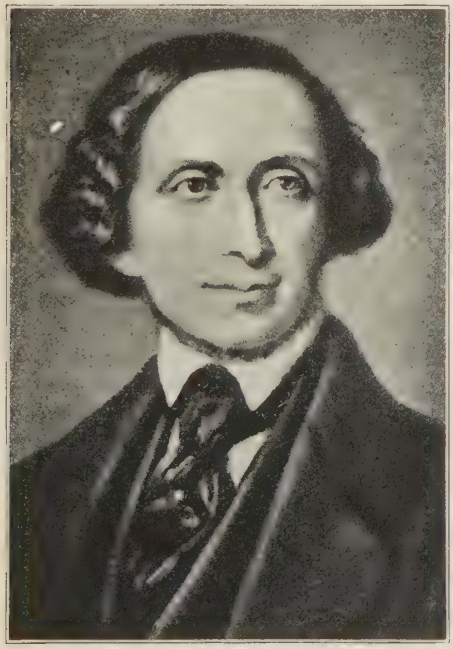
THE STERN WRITERS OF RUSSIA

A group of remarkable novelists appeared in Russia in the nineteenth century. Perhaps the greatest storyteller among them was Ivan Turgenieff; but the most famous in his work and life was Count Leo Tolstoy, who was a reformer and a philosopher, as well as a novelist. His novel "War and Peace" is one of the strongest as well as earliest anti-war novels. "Anna Karenina" is generally considered his greatest work of pure fiction, although he wrote many very powerful short stories and plays to enforce his teachings of a democratic religion of love and brotherhood and of a simple life. He was also the author of a number of essays and treatises on these subjects, which have caused a great deal of discussion. Although he condemned the Russian government very severely, his teachings of peace and non-resistance and the great love he won among the people saved him from the persecutions from which other reformers suffered under the rule of the czars. There is very little that is cheerful in Russian fiction, all of the novelists in Russia seeming to take a very dark view of life.

THE BOYS' AND GIRLS' STORY TELLER, HANS CHRISTIAN ANDERSEN

The northern countries have pro-

duced their share of important writers. One of the most popular story-tellers of Europe was Hans Christian Andersen, who lived in Denmark in the nineteenth century. He was the writer of the most delightful fairy tales in European literature, which will always be read with eagerness by the boys and girls of all countries. "The Little Mermaid," "The Snow Queen," "The Ugly Duckling," "The Tinder Box," and "The Gallant Tin Soldier" are among those which have become household words. Hans Christian Andersen was loved by everybody, and was highly honored even while still alive, which has not been the good fortune of many great writers.



HANS CHRISTIAN ANDERSEN

A NORWEGIAN WHO SET PEOPLE ASKING QUESTIONS

A very different man was the Norwegian, Henrik Ibsen, who wrote plays of modern life. His works were for highly educated men and women, and have puzzled even some of the wisest among them. They show men and women who at first appear very strange and unnatural to us, but who grow more real when we study them carefully. He wanted to set people asking questions about many of the ordinary ideas of life and conduct, which most of us take for granted; and he shows that great harm may come from what seems to be the ordinary little mistakes which we all make. His plays have had a very great influence, although they are not very cheerful to read, as most of them end sadly. But life is not always happy; and Ibsen has done some good in teaching people to think more deeply and to be more honest with themselves and with others.

THREE POWERFUL GERMAN WRITERS

Germany has produced a large amount of important literature. Some of the greatest writers lived in the eighteenth century, and did much to form German style. One of the most worthy of them was Gotthold Ephraim Lessing, who wrote critical works, poems, fables and plays, and had a great influence over his time. He was an original thinker and a broadminded man, who opposed all intolerance and bigotry. His noblest work, if not his greatest, is "Nathan the Wise," a wonderful drama in behalf of human brotherhood and especially against prejudice and persecution on account of religious differences.

Lessing was followed by one of the greatest geniuses of modern literature. Johann Wolfgang von Goethe lived from 1749 to 1832, and almost from his youth was a recognized leader in the literary circle of his day. His active mind carried him into almost every field of thought and life, and his writings cover nearly every possible kind of literary work. He was great in

poetry and drama, and no less in prose, whether dealing with fiction or with fact. His drama "Faust" is looked on as one of the masterpieces of all literature. He takes the old legend of the scholar who sells his soul to the devil for a few years of happiness, and turns it into a very deep study of the human soul. In his novel "Wilhelm Meister" he gives much insight into his own life-experiences and the steps by which he learned his greatest lessons. "Hermann and Dorothea" is one of the most exquisite love-stories ever put into verse.

A literary associate and friend of Goethe was J. C. Friedrich von Schiller, whose poetry and drama are full of power and vigor. He was a great lover of the spirit of freedom; and sometimes he wrote too freely to please the court and government. In such plays as "The Robbers," "Mary Stuart," "William Tell" and "Wallenstein," he fired the popular imagination, and won great fame. His poems are marked by great dramatic vigor. "The Diver" is perhaps best known to English-speaking readers, as it does not lose so much by translation as some of the others.

Balzac, who pictured French society

Only a few of the great writers of France can be named here, although many others are well worth reading. Balzac is the author of a large number of novels and short stories, all of which are connected under the general name of "The Human Comedy." He tried to give a complete picture of the life of French society in his period, the first half of the nineteenth century. The same characters keep reappearing in the different works, scarcely a single one of the 2,000 created by him being mentioned in only a single book. He shows life in every phase, from its most beautiful and ideal aspects to the ugliest and most wicked. His pictures of human nature are remarkable in their truth to life.

The man who gave us "Les Miserables"

Victor Hugo is regarded by many as the greatest of French novelists, although some people think that he is too fond of exaggeration and of high-sounding language. He lived through the greater part of the nineteenth century, and took an active part in public affairs in the years just before the Franco-Prussian War of 1870-71, as well as for some time afterwards. He was an ardent champion of the French Republic, and was for a time forced to exile himself from France on account of his conscientious opposition to Napoleon III. Happily he lived to see liberty restored to his country, although after a sad and disastrous war; and when he died in 1885, he could feel sure that the rights of the people were safe from any new effort of any enemy of liberty, whether royalist or Bonapartist. He was a great poet and dramatist, breaking away from the classic traditions of the drama, which had hampered the talents of the older writers. It is as a novelist, however, that he is most read today. His "Les Miserables" is probably the greatest novel ever written in any language, and "Toilers of the Sea," "The Man Who Laughs" and "The Hunchback of Notre Dame" are almost as great, and are all deeply thrilling.

The thrilling romances of Dumas

Another great French novelist is Alexander Dumas, who lived from 1802 to 1870. He wrote the most fascinating romances that can be imagined, piling adventure upon adventure to such a degree as almost to take the breath away. His most famous work is "The Count of Monte Cristo," the story of which everybody knows.

The heroic adventures of D'Artagnan in Dumas' "Three Musketeers." The pages of the novel have thrilled thousands and the film version is thrilling millions.

Next to that in popularity come "The Three Musketeers" and its sequels, in which the remarkable D'Artagnan and his three companions perform the most extraordinary feats of daring. Some readers consider the series of novels dealing with Catherine de Medici and Henry of Navarre as even more interesting and effectively written. Dumas published an almost unbelievable number of novels; but in some of them he had the assistance of other writers, whom he engaged to help him.

England and her long list of literary workers

Perhaps no other country can boast of so great and varied a literature as England. Even a bare list of the names of its notable writers would fill many pages. As this is not a complete history of English literature, the few authors mentioned here must not be supposed to be the only ones of importance, since a great many others are as well known and as widely read as some of those whose names are to follow.

The poet who gave us the "Canterbury Tales"

Geoffrey Chaucer, who lived about 1340 to 1400, was not the first English poet, but he was the one real genius of the earliest period. While he wrote other poems, some of them extremely beautiful, he is best known by his "Canterbury Tales," which are still interesting to us, in spite of the antiquated language and the many words which are no longer used. He describes a company of pilgrims on their way to Canterbury, and the stories which they told to one another as they walked or rode along. Travel was a different thing in Chaucer's day to what it is in ours. Automobiles, railroads, even stage coaches and carriages were not to be had; and a journey of a few dozen miles was something really serious, especially as the roads were very bad, where they existed at all, and were apt to be infested by robbers. So Chaucer's company, although their journey would seem a very short one to us, had plenty of time to talk their fill, and to tell a great many long stories. The different characters are very vividly described; and they act in full keeping with the account given of them. The stories are told in a most interesting manner, with many sly hits at the follies and vices of the time. Chaucer was recognized as a great poet in his own lifetime, and held an honored position at court.

The talented Edmund Spenser

The greatest outbreak of English genius in literature came in the reign

EDMUND SPENSER

of Queen Elizabeth, beginning nearly a century and a half after Chaucer's

death. With the exception of the dramatists, the most talented poet of this great era was Edmund Spenser. He was born in 1533, and died in 1599. His "Shepherd's Calendar," a group of pastoral poems for the different months of the year, attracted attention to him, and gained him a position in court, where he became very popular. He continued to write charming love songs, fine sonnets and other beautiful poems, which increased his reputation. His greatest work, however, was a wonderful allegorical poem in honor of Elizabeth. It was intended to consist of twelve books, each of considerable length. Only the first six books, however, actually appeared; but these have gained him lasting fame by their beauty and imaginative power. In general, he represents the virtues and the vices as human beings, warring against one another, the inner power of truth and virtue to overcome all the plots and devices of evil being the underlying theme. It is sad to tell that Spenser's life, after years of honor and happiness, ended most unhappily. Being given an important position in Ireland, he was attacked by an angry mob, determined to kill all the English. He managed to escape with his life, and to bring his wife and part of his family with him; but his home was destroyed by fire, with all his manuscripts and treasures; and one of his children was burned to death. He returned to England only to die in a few months, broken hearted over the tragedy that had come to him.

THE GREATEST PLAYWRIGHT OF ALL—SHAKESPEARE

The greatest of all the Elizabethan writers, as everybody knows, was William Shakespeare. The world in general has agreed to recognize him as the greatest poet and dramatist who has ever lived. Thousands of books have been written in praise of his wonderful genius, and in discussion of his plays and poems. This makes it surprising to know that in his own day he was looked upon as only one of a number of good writers, who was merely praised along with the rest for having written some clever and interesting plays. Even a hundred years later, his powers were so little appreciated that several rather bad poets and

E. H. SOTHERN—As Shylock
In "THE MERCHANT OF VENICE"

playwrights undertook to revise his plays; and their wretched stuff was for a long time more popular than the original form in which Shakespeare wrote. None of those who knew him personally thought it worth while to tell much about him for the benefit of

those who were to live later; and so we know much less than we should like about his life. He was born in 1564 in Stratford-on-Avon, and died in 1616. He went to London while still young, having run away, according to one account, from a butcher to whom he had been apprenticed, and after earning his living in different less dignified ways, finally became an actor. It is said that his acting was not very good, and that he played only in the less

JULIA MARLOWE—As Viola
In "TWELFTH NIGHT"

important parts. His first play was written about 1591. In general, he did not invent his plots, but took them from history or from the stories of Italian and other romances. He has given life, however, to what would otherwise have been mere commonplace. Above all, he has created a company of men and women, who are as real as those whom we see on the street every day, and has read their very souls. His plays form a treasure-house of wisdom, powerful and unbounded imagination and matchless beauty of expression. They will live as long as our language, and always be admired and wondered at, as well as enjoyed. Many of them are still continually produced in our theatres, although only the greatest actors can do justice to them. But the man Shakespeare remains a mystery to us. One of our poets has well expressed his relation to the time in which he lived by the lines:

"Thus they the man of Avon met,
As you and I might meet;
He is the man of Avon yet,
But kings are at his feet!"

THE LITERARY MAN WHO WAS MAINLY PHILOSOPHER

Another great figure, contemporary with Shakespeare, is Francis Bacon. He is more celebrated as a philosopher than as an author of pure literature; but his essays are full of keen insight into life, and contain a great deal of useful suggestion. He was a very great thinker, and did much good by his exposure of the waste of time and energy in the discussion of great principles without a serious effort to find the simple facts. This was the great fault of scholars in his day; and Bacon did much to set philosophers and scientists on the road of observation, in order to learn truth by studying what can be clearly seen, and then searching for the great principles which best account for the facts observed.

Recently some people have held the curious theory that Bacon was the real author of Shakespeare's plays, since

they think that Shakespeare was too ignorant and unimportant a man to have done such wonderful work. A careful study of the style and many special features of the plays and of Bacon's real works proves this to be impossible; but it shows how greatly Bacon's ability has impressed some men and women even after three centuries.

THE PURITAN POET WHO TAUGHT LIBERTY

By far the greatest name of the century immediately following Shakespeare is that of John Milton, the Puritan poet, author of "Paradise Lost" and other great poems. Milton was one of the noblest teachers of liberty that England ever produced. Because he defended the execution of Charles I and the effort to establish a republic in England, he was persecuted in the reign of Charles II, but fortunately did not suffer the cruel penalties imposed on some other friends of freedom. He had the misfortune to become blind in the latter part of his life; but this did not hinder him from producing his greatest poems, which his daughters wrote from his dictation. His poetry is more sublime than that of any other writer in the English language.

THE BRILLIANT EIGHTEENTH CENTURY GROUP

A rather frivolous period followed Milton, in which there were some clever writers, but none of commanding importance. With the beginning of the eighteenth century, modern English literature takes its real start. Addison and Steele wrote charming essays, which prepared the way for the essayists of the nineteenth century. Dr. Samuel Johnson, who is best known to us by the entertaining stories told of him by James Boswell in what is perhaps the most famous biography in the language, compiled the first important English dictionary. Dean Swift, the first of the famous satirical writers in England, wrote the amusing "Gulliver's Travels," which tells about a sailor who visited countries inhabited by dwarfs, giants, people who lived forever, queer experimenters, inhabitants of a flying island and horses that had the intelligence of human beings. In all this, he was really ridiculing the people and customs of England; but it was done so cleverly and entertainingly that we now read the story for its own sake, and do not bother about the satire. John Bunyan wrote the great allegory called "The Pilgrim's Progress," which still surprises us by the genius of the poor tinker who wrote it. Daniel Defoe told stories in such a clear and simple way that readers supposed he was simply relating things which had really happened. His famous work, "Robinson Crusoe," is just as delightful today as when it was first written.

Most talented of all the early novelists was Oliver Goldsmith. He wrote poems and plays as well as fiction; and his "Deserted Village" is a beautiful picture of country life and of lovable human beings. "She Stoops to Conquer" is still sometimes played in our theatres. His one novel, "The Vicar of Wakefield," is full of both humor and sympathy. It is said that he was very poor when he wrote it, and that his landlady was going to have him arrested, as the law of that time allowed, for not paying his rent. He sent for Dr. Johnson, who read the story and liked it so much that he took it away and sold it to a bookseller for just a little more than Goldsmith needed for his landlady.

One of the best poets of the eighteenth century was Robert Burns, a Scotch ploughboy, who had the wonderful gift of song. He wrote many

poems, which everybody quotes and loves. His life was not a very happy one, partly due to his own fault; but all his weaknesses are forgiven, when we read "A Man's a Man for a 'That," "Tam O'Shanter," "Afton Water" and his many other charming songs and poems.

THE EARLY NINETEENTH CENTURY MEN WHO BROKE AWAY FROM OLD FORMS

The early nineteenth century brought out a whole group of wonderful English poets, who broke away from the stiffness of most of those of the former period, and used new meters and forms in a spontaneous and beautiful manner. William Wordsworth sang of nature as no poet had ever done before, and showed the beauty to be found in the simple things of life. Shelley and Keats, Byron and Coleridge, each had an individual talent, and among them carried lyric poetry to a height never before known. It was believed that the early death of Keats was hastened by the harsh criticisms of certain reviewers, who could not appreciate his fine imagination. Shelley took this to be true, and wrote a marvelous elegy on Keats, called "Adonais." Shelley also died at a very early age, being drowned in a storm on an Italian lake. A volume of Keats was found on his body. Byron had an unhappy life, and finally went to Greece to help the Greeks win their freedom from the Turks. There he was killed, fighting bravely in battle.

AS THE LAST CENTURY ADVANCED—GREAT NAMES

Of the many later poets of England, the greatest are generally admitted to have been Alfred Tennyson and Robert Browning. Tennyson's stately style has not been reached by any other poet. Both he and Browning, unlike many of the former poets, lived long and happy lives. Browning's romantic marriage with Elizabeth Barrett, herself a very talented poetess, influenced his whole life and work. His great gift was the picturing of human nature under all kinds of conditions.

The nineteenth century produced a great many excellent English novelists; and a number more have appeared in our own time. Sir Walter Scott is the first of the greater writers of this kind; and his "Ivanhoe," "Kenilworth" and other historical and romantic novels will be read for many years to come. Charles Dickens and William M. Thackeray may be perhaps picked out as the greatest of the following period. Dickens appeals perhaps a little more to younger readers, and Thackeray to those who are older. But nobody can ever grow too old to enjoy "David Copperfield" and "Our Mutual Friend" and such splendid and vigorous stories as "Henry Esmond" and "The Newcomes" are not too heavy reading for any bright boy or girl. Robert Louis Stevenson is one of the best loved of the later writers of stories and essays, because of his exquisite style and his fine human touches. His "Treasure Island" is the best pirate story in the English language.

John Ruskin, Thomas B. Macaulay and Thomas Carlyle may stand as examples of the best kind of serious writing in the nineteenth century. Each of these has his own special style. Macaulay writes brilliantly, and draws striking contrasts. He is full of argument, and dwells largely on historic subjects. Ruskin is an inspiring writer on art and morals, who carries the reader away by the sheer beauty of his expression. Carlyle is also a moralist, as well as a biographer and a historian. His manner is more stern and energetic, sometimes reminding us of the spirit of the old Hebrew prophets.

This scene is from the screen play, "Richard, the Lion-Hearted," and presents the romantic figure of the king, who is a character in the novels of Sir Walter Scott, especially in "The Talisman."

A scene from Dicken's "David Copperfield," wherein we see the Rookery, the charming little house where David was born. David is seen in the background with the old servant. In the foreground is Mr. Murdstone and David's mother.

IRVING'S HOME "SUNNYSIDE," TARRYTOWN, NEW YORK

LEADING WRITERS—American

THE writers of our own country are of especial interest to us. Not only are they worth while in themselves, but they express the spirit of America, and write from the American point of view. We need to appreciate all that is good in every part of the world, but to remember always that we are first of all Americans, and that our country has a mission of its own in the world. A study of the history of American literature makes us justly proud that our land has produced so many writers who have had something valuable to say.

It must be remembered that literature needs a background. A new people, taken up with getting itself settled and putting its political and social institutions on a solid basis, cannot devote itself closely to purely literary work. So in the early years of our country we naturally did not produce many great writers. Sydney Smith, a popular English writer of the early nineteenth century, once asked sneeringly: "Who reads an American book?" No Englishman would talk that way today. While nearly all our really important literature has been written within the past hundred years, it has already reached a position of equal importance with that of the older nations. While we have produced no poet equal to Shakespeare or Milton, or perhaps to Wordsworth, Shelley, Byron, Keats, Browning or Tennyson, certain of our novelists and essayists rank with the best which England has to show; and it is probable that our historians deserve an even higher rank than those of the older country.

As is well known, the first permanent settlements in America were made at Jamestown, Va., in 1607, and at

Plymouth, Mass., in 1620. The early settlers had all they could do in building homes in their new country, clearing the land and raising the first crops, and defending themselves against hostile tribes of Indians. Life was a pretty serious business for them for a good many years. There was no American people, no nation such as we know it today, but little scattering settlements, each making a colony of its own, ultimately numbering thirteen. At the beginning, these were not only not fully self-governing, but they did not even all belong to English rule. Dutch, Swedish, French and Spanish settlements were to be found in different parts of the country; and wars with some of these, as well as disputes with England, when the mother-country tried to interfere too much in the local affairs of the colonies, added to the troubles of our forefathers. Nor could the colonies agree well among themselves, since different settlements were formed with very different aims and by different sorts of people, who had very little in common, and sometimes disliked or distrusted one another very much. Several of the colonies were founded by groups of people of particular religious faiths, and extremely intolerant of the beliefs of others, causing much confusion and discord in the relations among the colonies. Only the American Revolution, beginning in 1775, at last drew all these elements together, and taught them the spirit of nationality and the love of their common country.

WHAT OUR EARLY WRITERS WROTE ABOUT

It is natural, however, for people to express themselves, no matter how much they are occupied with other things; and so it was not long before pamphlets and books began here and

ANCIENT LANDMARKS OF THE OLD BAY STATE

there to be written. Leaving poetry aside for the present, we find the first prose writers to be men who wanted to argue about their different ideas, chiefly on religion. More than half the American writings of the seventeenth century are on religious subjects; and over half the rest are historical or biographical. Hardly any of these are read today, except by persons who wish to make a very careful study of the time. "The Bloudy Tenent of Persecution" by Roger Williams deserves to be remembered, not for its literary value, but because it is the first great argument for complete religious liberty and the separation of church and state, which has become one of the greatest American principles. Cotton Mather's two books, "Magnalia" and "The Wonders of the Invisible World" have some interest, as written by a man who really believed in witchcraft, and described the strange things which he imagined to have happened in New England at the time when witches were being hanged. William Bradford's "History of Plymouth Plantation" is probably the most valuable historical work of the early period.

Between the end of the seventeenth century and the American Revolution, Jonathan Edwards was perhaps the most important writer of the early period and Benjamin Franklin of the later. Edwards was a very stern theologian, whose sermons are full of the horrors of hell and the probability that very few persons will be saved from it. He makes religion appear most dark and terrible and life a very gloomy affair. Nevertheless, he was personally a most high-minded and honorable man, and, in spite of his narrow starting-point, a powerful thinker. His treatise on the freedom of the will, in which he argues that there can be no such freedom, but that all our actions are predetermined, is a masterpiece of reasoning, and is still read with admiration, even by those who do not agree with it.

Benjamin Franklin, while better remembered for his shrewd and humorous practical philosophy and for his immense services to the cause of patriotism before and during the Revolution, than for his distinctively literary work, wrote some things very widely read. His "Poor Richard's Almanac," which appeared annually for twenty-five years, is full of clever and instructive sayings; and his "Autobiography" is one of the few great works of that kind in any language. (See Page 178)

LITERATURE INSPIRED BY THE REVOLUTION

During and immediately after the Revolution, the most important writings were those called out directly by that great struggle and by the need of organizing the colonies into a nation, which was realized as soon as the contest was over. Perhaps the most important of such works are "The Crisis," "Common Sense" and "The Rights of Man" by Thomas Paine, the first two of which inspired and heartened the contest for independence, and the last named laid down the principles of democracy which have become the bed-rock of American institutions. The group of papers called "The Federalist," written by Madison, Hamilton and Jay to expound the proposed American Constitution, are also of great consequence. American novel-writing begins with Brockden Brown, whose tales of horror are almost forgotten today.

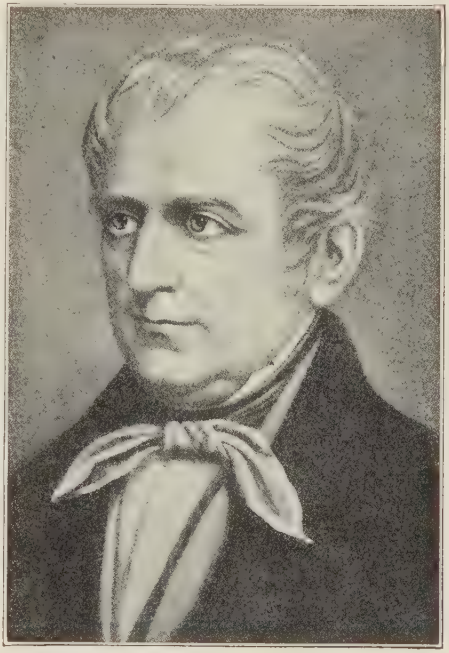
OUR FIRST GREAT LITERARY NAME

This brings us to the first really great name in American literature, that of Washington Irving. He is our first real master of style. In his writings, we leave the atmosphere of argument

and intense appeal, and all the grappling with the problems of the everyday world, and enter the enchanted land of the imagination. Even his important historical writings, the lives of Columbus and Washington, the "Voyages of the Companions of Columbus" and the "Conquest of Granada," are written in so fascinating a manner that we feel the spirit of romance, more than that of history, animating them. In his "Knickerbocker's History of New York," we have something wholly new in humorous writing. It is a comic history, mixing fact with the most absurd exaggerations in the most delicious manner. His "Bracebridge Hall," describing English country life with many entertaining stories and character sketches, and his "Alhambra," full of wonderful and entrancing travelers' tales and old romances, never become tiresome. His short stories, however, are most familiar to every American reader. The two most famous ones, appearing in his delightful collection called the "Sketch Book," are "Rip Van Winkle" and the "Legend of Sleepy Hollow." The scenes of these imaginary tales are still visited as historic spots. Irving's graceful style is modeled on that of the best English writers of the eighteenth century, especially Addison and Goldsmith. He is the first American writer to win recognition in England.

THE VIGOROUS FICTION OF COOPER

James Fenimore Cooper begins the long line of eminent American novelists, who are still enjoyed by all intelligent readers. He began to write in 1821, and continued until his death thirty years later. In that short period, he wrote more than seventy books, a majority of them being novels. He was disputatious, and had very strong feelings on some political, historical and social questions, on which he wrote with great energy but too much bitterness. But his writings on these subjects are entirely dead; and what he lives by is his great output of interesting fiction. While some of his novels show signs of being too hastily written, most of them are full of life



JAMES FENIMORE COOPER

and vigor. In the "Leatherstocking Tales," a series of five stories dealing with the interesting character known in the different volumes as Deerslayer, Hawkeye, the Pathfinder and by his "regular" name Natty Bumppo, and in several other novels, he shows us the American Indian of the colonial period and in some cases of the early nineteenth century. He has been accused of idealizing the Indians too much; but at least he makes them seem very real, and brings out the superstitions and cruelties of the tribes, as well as the Stoic virtues and firm integrity of some of the individual chiefs. His stories move with a vigor

that keeps us eager all the time. "The Last of the Mohicans" is generally considered the best of all his novels. "The Spy," dealing with an important part of the Revolutionary War, and introducing George Washington as one of the characters, "The Pilot," of which Paul Jones is the hero, although his name is not given, "The Water Witch," in which the scene is laid in New York at the time when the Dutch influence was still predominant, "The Two Admirals" and several others are as exciting and enjoyable adventure stories as anybody could wish to read. He wrote a few society novels, which were not quite so successful, as here he was less in his element, and more inclined to imitate some of the English novelists.

THE NOVELIST WHO OFTEN "STEPPED OUT"

Perhaps the greatest genius among American fiction-writers was Nathaniel Hawthorne, whose literary career began slightly later than that of Cooper. This master of style, whom Lowell has called "the greatest imaginative writer since Shakespeare," was born in Salem, Mass., in 1804, and died in the White Mountains in New Hampshire in 1864. His first story was published in 1828. Hawthorne had a deeper love of the beautiful than almost any other American writer. His imagination often led him into forming very weird conceptions; but in his skillful hands the unreal is made to seem real. "The Scarlet Letter" is the most powerful story of Puritan New England that has ever been written. "The Marble Faun," which many consider his best novel, deals with the strange resemblance of a young Italian to the famous statue of a faun by the Greek sculptor Praxiteles. In one of his short stories, "The Great Stone Face," he tells of the prophecy of a great man who shall have the exact features of the remarkable rock face in the White Mountains, commonly called "The Old Man of the Mountain." Hawthorne was a gentle and retiring soul, although several times holding positions in the service of the government. At the back of the house where he lived in Concord, Mass., there still stands a little grove, and visitors are told that when any stranger came to the house in the hope of seeing him, he used to slip out of the back door, and hide among the trees till the visitor had gone, having been told that "Mr. Hawthorne had just stepped out," which was literally true. All of Hawthorne's many novels and short stories show the spirit of genius, though some of them are full of mystery, and carry us a long way from the world in which we really live.

STUDY OF HAWTHORNE, MALL STREET, SALEM
Where "Scarlet Letter" was written

MINOR NOVELISTS OF THE EARLY DAYS

Other novelists of the earlier period are less read today, although some of them deserve to be well remembered. William Ware's "Zenobia" and "Aurelian" are historical novels of much merit, with some notable passages. William Gilmore Simms is a lesser Cooper; but his novels of the Revolutionary War are worth reading. Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe's "Uncle Tom's Cabin" is perhaps as famous a single novel as has ever appeared in this country, and is known all over the

world. It played a great part in arousing sentiment against slavery in the years just before the Civil War. She wrote several other novels, some of which, such as "Oldtown Folks" and "The Minister's Wooing" are much better stories, though less widely read. In recent years, there is a revival of interest in the sea stories of Herman Melville, whose "Moby Dick" is one of the best of all our American novels. His "Typee" and "Omoo" are also fascinating tales of the sea and of certain more or less savage islands.

THE EXCELLENT NOVELISTS OF THE LATTER NINETEENTH CENTURY

The last half of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth produced so many excellent novelists that a mere list of them would take a great deal of space. One of these was Thomas Bailey Aldrich, who also deserves mention as a graceful poet, even though not of the first rank. Aldrich's "Story of a Bad Boy" is still classed among the few permanently readable and first-class boys' stories, and is certainly nearly or quite the best of these written in America. The incidents are mostly taken from his own boyhood. His other novels are not so widely read. He was closely associated with the literary life of his time; and his old home in Portsmouth, New Hampshire, is now a public museum, in which are to be found many rare and interesting relics of his period.

Edward Eggleston is best known by his "Hoosier Schoolmaster." In this and his other stories he has given vivid pictures of the backwoods life of the early settlers of the middle west. He set the pace for many writers that have followed him.

General Lew Wallace is famous for his "Ben Hur," which is a story of Palestine in the time of Jesus. This book has been dramatized, and has been almost as popular on the stage and more recently in the moving pictures as in the library. The thrilling account of the chariot race between the hero and his enemy and rival Messala is one of the most stirring passages in any novel. "The Fair God" and "The Prince of India" are also popular. The latter of these deals with the old legend of the Wandering Jew.

One of the most important writers of this period was William Dean Howells. He wrote many novels, essays and criticisms, and a little admirable poetry. For several years, he was editor of the *Atlantic Monthly*, and in the later part of his life he held an important editorial position on *Harper's Magazine*. His novels deal chiefly with modern American society in a realistic but dignified manner. His plots are never exciting. In one of his stories, he has two persons discussing the writers of the day, including himself, and makes one of them say of a story: "It might be by Howells. Only then nothing ever happens." So he was not afraid to poke a little mild fun at himself. He describes real life, but chiefly in its more respectable and gentler expressions, picturing habits and foibles, rather than strong virtues or serious vices or crimes; and a delicate humor is the most marked quality of his work. "The Rise of Silas Lapham" is perhaps his strongest novel, and contains more emotional appeal than is usual with him. Those who read only for the story do not care for him; but those who admire good taste and enjoy exquisiteness of style find him a great favorite.

Frank R. Stockton is especially remembered for his clever short story, "The Lady or the Tiger;" but he wrote a great many delightful tales for young and old, in many of them giving a new and humorous setting to old

fairy story plots. His "Rudder Grange" is a most amusing story of a family that tried to live on a house boat.

WHEN WE THINK OF HUMOR—MARK TWAIN

American literature has been very rich in good humorists of a different type from those of any other country. The best known of these is Samuel L. Clemens, more familiar to us by his pen name of Mark Twain. This name was taken by him from one of the expressions used in sounding the Mississippi River by the old-time pilots, with whom the humorist worked for some years in the early part of his life. He was born in 1835, and died in 1910, having added much amusement to life and a great deal of richness to our literature. Even Oxford University honored him with a high degree. His "Tom Sawyer" and "Huckleberry Finn" are equally delightful reading by boys and by those who like to read about boyish pranks. In "A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court," he makes great fun of the worship of the past, and incidentally indicates the fundamental superiority of the democratic principle over all the feudalisms, monarchies and aristocracies. "The Prince and the Pauper" is a most amusing account, with a touch of serious purpose, of a boy and a prince who suddenly changed places. One of his greatest successes was his "Innocents Abroad," a humorous account of an imaginary tour to various famous places. He wrote many other witty books, which everybody enjoys reading; and at the same time by means of his good-natured satire he has taught many important truths.

THE HIGH RANK OF HENRY JAMES, NOVELIST

Henry James, from a purely literary standpoint, is generally considered to rank at the head of latter-day American novelists. His intellectual subtlety has not been excelled by any writer in the world. He was, however, an American in little else than name, having spent most of his life in England, and having become a British subject in 1915. While the grace and vigor of his style are admired beyond measure by the best judges of language, his novels have little plot, and do not appeal to the popular taste.

BRET HARTE AND OTHER GREAT SHORT STORY WRITERS

Francis Bret Harte, better known as simply Bret Harte, was not only a greater poet than is generally realized, but also one of the finest writers of short stories which our country has produced. It is unfortunate that his clever little poem, "The Heathen Chinee," became so famous, since it stood in the way of the appreciation of the great body of far better work which he produced. His Civil War poems were very well known. "The Reveille," "John Burns of Gettysburg" and others, stand out as among the very best called forth by the great struggle. In prose, "The Outcasts of Poker Flat" drew public attention to the great field of romance lying at our very doors in the development of the Far West. This fine story was followed by many more, chiefly concerned with the same region of inexhaustible interest. He has had many imitators, but none to equal his own skill in constructing fascinating narratives from the materials afforded in the transition of the great West from wild lawlessness to civilization.

Living and recently dead American story-tellers are too numerous to be covered except in a much more exhaustive account. A few names of those who well deserve attention are Richard Harding Davis, O. Henry, George W. Cable, Joel Chandler Harris, Edith Wharton, Booth

Tarkington, Mary E. Wilkins, Jack London, Margaret Deland, Gertrude Atherton, Frank Norris and Theodore Dreiser. New names are constantly coming to the front; and the future of American fiction may be regarded as likely to be very brilliant. In the writing of short stories, in particular, the American writers occupy the front rank.

SITE OF THOREAU'S HUT, LAKE WALDEN

Here the great writer lived a life of seclusion, in a home built with his own hands. He lived frugally, and among other works wrote "Walden, or Life in the Woods."

Great essayists

The quality of our historians and essayists is very high. Most of our leading writers of fiction have also been conspicuous as essayists and many of them have written more or less extensively on historical subjects. We have also had a number of talented writers, who have devoted special attention to essays and brief sketches of a charming nature. Such are Charles Dudley Warner, George W. Curtis, Donald K. Mitchell (Ik Marvel) and the most delightful of all lovers of nature, John Burroughs. Oliver Wendell Holmes, to be mentioned presently as a poet, was also a fascinating essayist; and his "Autocrat of the Breakfast Table," with its companion volumes, will be enjoyed by thousands of readers for many years to come. Longfellow, Lowell, Whitman and Poe, among our foremost poets, also wrote essays of great value and importance in our literary history. Poe might likewise have been named among our great writers of short stories.

The greatest and most profound of our essayists was Ralph Waldo Emerson, who is often ranked as America's one thoroughly original philosopher.

EMERSON'S LIBRARY

He was the great apostle of transcendentalism, which is an idealistic philosophy with many very noble qualities, but considered by most of us to be somewhat too vague and theoretical for the needs of practical life. As expressed through Emerson's personality it was full of inspiration to the development of the higher mental and moral qualities. While Emerson was quiet and detached from much of the excitement of everyday life, he was greatly reverenced, and had a large following. Henry D. Thoreau, another interesting figure with a philosophy akin to transcendentalism, was Emerson's close friend, both living in Concord, where there came to be a regular group of literary and philosophical thinkers. In the years just before the Civil War, both of them were strongly opposed to slavery; but Thoreau went further in his opposition, and refused to pay

taxes, because the Constitution of the United States protected slavery. At one time, he was put in prison for this reason. When Emerson came to visit him, he asked: "Henry, why are you here?" To which Thoreau quickly rejoined: "Ralph, why are you not here?" Emerson's essays are among the books which are found in every good private library; and they cannot fail to make any person the better and more thoughtful for reading them. His poetry is also of a noble and inspiring nature, though much of it is too philosophical to be popular with hasty readers. It contains so much power and beauty that he is rightly placed among our foremost poets.

Leading historians

Perhaps the most brilliant of our historical writers was William H. Prescott, whose first published work was a biography that appeared in 1834. An accident in his college days had made him almost totally blind for life. In spite of this terrible handicap, he devoted himself to historical study, especially busying himself with the history of Spain at and before the discovery of America and with the Spanish conquests in the western world. He has made Ferdinand and Isabella, Columbus and his associates, Philip II, Cortez, Pizarro and Montezuma, live before us. Later historians have found some inaccuracies in his books; and new discoveries have been made, which throw a light on some topics about which he was not perfectly informed; but as a whole his works are still authorities; and no other books can take their place. His style is extremely attractive; and his narrative moves and thrills the reader as intensely as the most interesting fiction.

A very different man was George Bancroft, who was at work at about the same time. He was a careful scholar, and planned to write a complete history of the United States. He had studied in Germany; and perhaps he had caught the German habit of carrying thoroughness to excess. At any rate, he worked for no less than fifty-one years at his task, bringing out a new volume every few years, and died before the entire work was finished. Even with all this care, he was accused of incorrectness by persons who did not like his political opinions. However, his history is interesting to read, and has considerable authority even today, though mainly superseded by later works. His style is attractive, even if a little too rhetorical; and some of his descriptions are very brilliant.

In 1856, appeared "The Rise of the Dutch Republic" by John Lothrop Motley. Not concealing his intense sympathy with the spirit of liberty which was the keynote of the gallant and long-continued fight for independence waged by the Hollanders under William the Silent and other devoted leaders, Motley is always careful of his duties as a true historian. His book and those which followed it, and continued the story of Holland to a later period, are reliable as authorities, and make the best of reading.

A little later came the work of Francis Parkman. Like Prescott, this notable historian was partly blind, and struggled likewise against life-long ill health. In spite of this, he produced a very valuable series of works dealing with the Indian Wars of the Colonial period and with the struggle between the French and the English for control of the continent of North America. His accounts read like fiction, but stand the test of critical examination, since he was able to combine accuracy with interest to an unusual degree. His works, written in the middle and third quarter of the nineteenth century, remain standard.

John Fiske, though especially distinguished for his philosophical essays and discussions, deserves honorable mention as a historian for his valuable works dealing with the colonial period. While many good historical writers must be passed over, a word may be given to Charles Carleton Coffin, whose popularizing of history for boys and girls deserves much credit. In "The Story of Liberty," "The Boys of 'Seventy-six," "The Boys of 'Sixty-one," and other books, he has put life into the dry bones of history to such an extent as to lead many hundreds of our youth to a fresh interest in the story of the growth and ideals of their country.

AMERICA'S VARIED FIELDS OF LITERATURE

The contribution of the United States to the world in the form of solid works on science, art, economics, sociology and other subjects would require a large treatise to show in any sufficient way. Perhaps we may fairly excuse ourselves by saying that all this, though of the vastest importance, belongs to the history of thought and of knowledge more than to that of literature, although many works of a highly serious nature also hold a very high literary position

POETRY IN THE UNITED STATES

American poetry was slow in developing. To our early ancestors, life was too serious and existence too difficult to allow much free play to the imagination. The Bay State Psalm Book, published in 1640, seems to modern taste little better than doggerel. Michael Wigglesworth's "Day of Doom" is a terrible exposition of the most rigorous theology, and is written in very ragged verse. The first and only real American poet of the seventeenth century was a woman, Mrs. Anne Bradstreet. She had not a very great genius, but wrote earnestly and in good taste. The early eighteenth century was blank; and the Revolutionary War brought out little beyond rough ballads and crude satirical verse. John Trumbull's fairly clever mock epic, "McFingal," Joel Barlow's rather pompous "Columbiad" and Philip Freneau's lyrics, of which the best is "The Indian Burying Ground," are the most important productions during the last part of the eighteenth century.

Joseph Rodman Drake and Fitz-Greene Halleck are the earliest poets who still appeal to the reader. Both appeared early in the nineteenth century. Drake's most ambitious poem is the charming fantasy called "The Culprit Fay," but to most of us he is best known by his stirring stanzas on "The American Flag." It is not a very good American who is not thrilled by the fine lines:

"Forever float that standard sheet!
Where breathes the foe but falls before us,
With Freedom's soil beneath our feet,
And Freedom's banner streaming o'er us?"

Halleck was an intimate friend of Drake; and it was of him, after his premature death, that Halleck's famous and beautiful lines were written:

"None knew him but to love him,
Or named him but to praise."

To our own generation, Halleck is probably best known by his vigorous "Marco Bozzaris." Every school boy has recited the lines:

"Strike till the last armed foe expires!
Strike for your altars and your fires!
Strike for the green graves of your sires,
God and your native land!"

In 1821 appeared a little volume of poetry by the first of the greater American poets. William Cullen Bryant was only a boy of seventeen when he wrote "Thanatopsis," one of the greatest short poems in the English language. From that time he continued

his literary career, as poet, editor and critic. His poems breathe a gentle imaginative spirit. Nature to him is a beautiful reality, transfigured by its relation to humanity. If his poetry has any fault, it is in his lack of emotion. But he is never commonplace; and his expression is always up to the level of the fineness of his thought.

THE GENIUS OF EDGAR ALLEN POE

Quite a different figure comes on the scene in the person of Edgar Allan Poe. This strange genius seemed doomed to tragedy almost from birth. His life was full of excitement, and marked by bitter experiences. His temperament cut him off from close sympathy with his fellow-men. He was rather like somebody from a different planet, who could never adjust himself to the life of this world. With many lovable qualities, he had some very great faults, although these were exaggerated by the malice of his enemies. His poems are almost always amazingly exotic, though full of powerful and intense beauty. "The Raven" is perhaps most familiar to persons of non-literary tastes; but it is not his greatest work. In England and France, he is admired as much as in the United States, though his fame here has been steadily growing ever since his mysterious death in 1849.

Although Poe's poems are far less numerous than those of any other of our more important poets, he is by common consent ranked among the greatest. Some qualified judges go so far as to say that America has produced but two poets who may properly be called "great"—Poe and Whitman.

LONGFELLOW—BELOVED OF ALL AMERICANS

Perhaps the best loved American poet is Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. The first volume of his poems appeared in 1839; and he continued to write during the remainder of his long life. He has often been accused of being over-sentimental and commonplace, and of simply dressing up very ordinary ideas in pretty language. The criticisms are not wholly untrue. He lived the life of a man of books, without ever fully entering into the stir and swing of the active life of mankind. His imagination was not keen and penetrating, but was often content with the simple lessons to be drawn from the outer surface of things. Yet his was a large and warm heart; and his instincts were always true. His dreams were beautiful ones, and have inspired many to nobler living. There have been greater poets than he; but he well deserves his popularity, and it will be many years before it grows less. "Evangeline," "Hiawatha," "The Courtship of Miles Standish," the "Tales of a Wayside Inn," and many of his shorter poems are familiar to almost every reader, and are always quoted with pleasure.

LOWELL, THE SCHOLARLY POET

Another great poet and great scholar was James Russell Lowell. Curiously enough, while he escapes from Longfellow's sometimes excessive quietism, and often breaks forth in almost inspired prophetic denunciations of national evils, his poetry is even more academic in language. He is more careful of his phrases and more fond of classical allusions. But there is not only great dignity but also great matter in Lowell. In his "Biglow Papers," he leaves his ordinary style altogether, and produces a most remarkable series of pungent satires in the Yankee dialect in its most extreme form. In the "Vision of Sir Launfal," he carries fine allegory to almost its highest point. Poems like "The Present Crisis," "A Parable" and many more, especially those inspired by the struggle against

This picture is of the landing of the Mayflower as portrayed in the movie play, Longfellow's "Courtship of Miles Standish." An exact reproduction of this historic old ship is here shown.

slavery, show him as the most earnest of moral reformers. He drives home his appeals in incisive lines like

"They are slaves who dare not be
In the right with two or three."

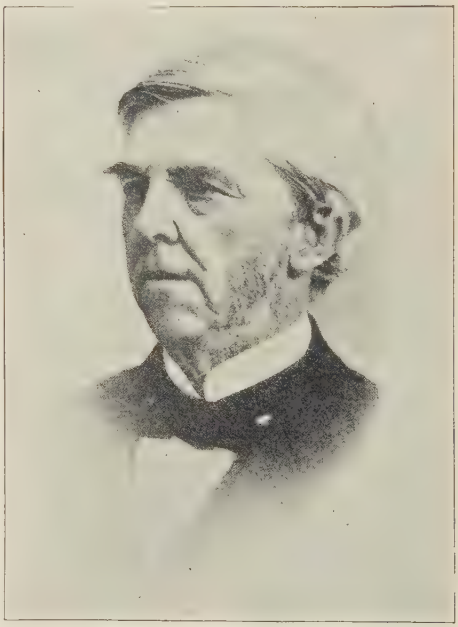
His "Commemoration Ode" for Harvard is generally considered his masterpiece. It is full of high dignity and sustained sublimity.

THE QUAKER POET, WHO WROTE AGAINST SLAVERY

Another of the series of leading American poets, in whom the spirit of reform is ever present, is John Greenleaf Whittier. Born a comparatively poor country boy, and reared in the plain teachings of the Quakers, from which he never departed, he had

WHITTIER'S HOME, AMESBURY

none of the academic training of Longfellow and Lowell, but looked on men and things with the eyes of one of the common people. Although of kindly and gentle disposition, he had a passionate hatred of injustice, and threw himself heart and soul into the fight against slavery. It is perhaps not too much to say that he wrote more and stronger anti-slavery poems than all other important poets of his period put together, though all the greater poets of the North were more or less vehement in their condemnation of the giant iniquity. Whittier does not play with phrases, but goes to the heart of things. Yet his imagination was far from commonplace. Even when his emotions were not highly stirred, his sense of the inner significance of things was vivid. His descriptions of natural beauty are often exquisite in the highest degree. "Snowbound" is generally regarded as his most perfect poem, simple picture of country life though it is. He will live by this, by his anti-slavery poems and by many of his shorter narrative and picture-poems, such as "Maud Muller," "The Witch's Daughter," "The King's Missive," "The Barefoot Boy," and the like, which touch notes to which every human heart responds.



OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES

THE POET OF MANY TALENTS

In Oliver Wendell Holmes we have a poet of a very different stamp. Holmes is scholar, physician, critic, philosophical Liberal and humorist, with just a touch of the reformer. He showed plainly enough his sympathy with the anti-slavery movement and his intense patriotism; and his "Union

and Liberty" is second to none of the Civil War poems. But his main enemy was bigotry, against which he sent many a keen shaft of polished wit. However, his special forte was delicately humorous society verse; and of this he was a true master. His best known poem is called by him "The Deacon's Masterpiece," but is better known as "The One-Hoss Shay." It is really a satire against old-fashioned dogmatism, but is amusing enough read just for its obvious meaning. Of finer quality are such poems as "The Last Leaf" and "The Chambered Nautilus," which stamp him as a true poet. He has already been spoken of as an essayist; and his novels, "Elsie Venner" and "The Guardian Angel," are among the best we have.

THE POET WHO WROTE WITHOUT RHYMES

Walt Whitman has been hailed by some, whose opinions are worth a great deal, as the highest of all American poets, and indeed as a rare example of a great prophet. On the other hand, certain critics pass him by altogether, or attack him as not a poet at all. It is certain that he is a very significant figure, who cannot be ignored, and that the tendency is toward a higher estimate of his work than was granted it in the past. The immense admiration for him in England and in many parts of Europe illustrates the saying that "a prophet is not without honor save in his own country." With three or four exceptions, his work is not in the form customary to what is called poetry. While it has a real swing and a true rhythm, it has no rhymes,and does not follow any fixed form of metre. The few of his poems in which the conventional forms are used, of which "O Captain, My Captain," is the most famous, prove that he could write in the ordinary way when he felt so inclined, although he seldom chose to do so. But he had a special kind of message, for which he instinctively felt that a new form was necessary. He dwells especially on democracy, the importance of individuality, the vast mission of America and the soul of good in all things, even such as appear commonplace or evil. "Pioneers, O Pioneers," "The Song of the Universal," "Out of the Cradle Endlessly Rocking," "When Lilacs Last in the Dooryard Bloomed" and "The Song of the Open Road" are among his most important poems.

A POET OF THE SOUTH WHO PUT MUSIC INTO HIS WRITINGS

Close behind the foregoing poets some would put Sidney Lanier, who is certainly the most talented poet that the South has produced. There is intense imagination in his work, most of which was written from the standpoint of his conviction that the musical sound of poetry must be made a principal feature. "The Marshes of Glynn" is his finest work, and an example of his style.

TWO POETS WHO ARE CLOSE TO THE COMMON HEART

James Whitcomb Riley and Eugene Field may in some ways be bracketed together as singers of the homely simple things of life. Yet each of them comes very close to the common heart. Riley's "Knee Deep in June" and Field's "Little Boy Blue" are poems which many far greater masters may well envy them for having written. They sing of the little interests of ordinary life and of nature as it may be seen by the eye of the common man, who is no scholar. But their apparently simple strains have a wonderful power of stirring the elementary emotions of men and women, and cause them to be remembered and loved by those who read little other poetry. Much of Riley's verse is in dialect.

THREE PROMINENT RELIGIOUS WRITERS

Son of a prominent clergyman—whose seven sons all followed their father's calling—it is not strange that

HENRY WARD BEECHER

Henry Ward Beecher became one of our famous preachers and writers. Few homes of the past generation were

PHILLIPS BROOKS

without a volume of Beecher's sermons—the finest of his writings. A splendid orator and lecturer, Beecher gave himself wholeheartedly to the freeing of our country from slavery. Among his writings are a novel of New England, "Norwood," a "Life of Christ" and a volume on "Evolution and Religion" which clearly expresses his theology.

Another well known preacher-writer was Phillips Brooks. A rare combination of liberal ideas and deep Christian convictions, of intensely spiritual and yet practical preaching, made him a great leader in his church, city and state. His best known books are "The Influence of Jesus," "Literature and Life" and "Yale Lectures on Preaching." He is the author of one of our favorite Christmas carols, "O Little Town of Bethlehem."

© Bachrach

JAMES CARDINAL GIBBONS

In the midst of a busy life which reached a climax in his appointment by Leo XIII as the second American Cardinal, James Gibbons yet found time to be author as well as leader. Keenly interested in labor questions, he was often called upon for aid in industrial disputes. Although a great executive and organizer he was a man of simple tastes, kindly and unostentatious. His chief works are "The Faith of Our Fathers," "Our Christian Heritage" and "A Retrospect of Fifty Years."

Painted for the Human Interest Library.

MAKING THE BEST OF THINGS—HOW THE WIND HELPED THE EXPLORERS SOMETIMES

CONQUERORS OF THE POLES

MAN has ever shown a strong desire to find out all he can about the wide world on which he lives, and especially about its hidden chambers. As we look at a globe or a map, and think over the stories of the countries, we realize how gradually the oceans and continents—nay, the very shape of the world—came into view for mankind. In our memory rises the old legend of the exploring journey of Hercules round the Mediterranean; the wonderful story of Marco Polo in the East; of Columbus and his followers in the West; of the grand efforts of pioneers in Central Asia, Africa, and America, all opening up chamber after chamber in our great world-home.

THE SPIRIT OF DISCOVERY

Those who know tell us that there is a joy that words cannot express given to the intrepid openers of new continents, and to those who first see new shores and oceans and show them to others.

Much as has been done in exploring the hidden parts of the earth, there are still secrets to find out in the vast crystal chambers at the extreme north and south of our world. "As wide as the Poles apart" is a saying we have to express great distance, for the Poles are the ends of the imaginary line running right through the earth, on which it is said to turn on its everlasting journey round the sun—as a wheel turns on its axle.

We must gather together, too, all that we know of snow and ice, of intense cold, of the difficulties of crossing the snow-fields and glaciers of the Alps and Himalayas, the mountains of Tibet and Alaska, and we must also recall the deep quiet and loneliness of these parts of the world. Then, putting all these snowy regions of the world together, and multiplying their size, their coldness, and their solitude many times over, we shall begin to have some idea of the icy regions that surround the Poles, each larger in size than the whole of the United States.

Now, if we place a globe or map of the world before us, so that we look directly down on these polar regions in turn, we shall see that there is a very great difference between them. We shall see at a glance that, on the north, the great continents of Eurasia and America stretch far up within the limits of the arctic circle, and that there are waterways passing each side of the immense island of Greenland, and by the Bering Strait into a huge polar sea studded with numerous islands.

THE LONG CENTURIES OF SOLITUDE IN WHICH THE SOUTHERN WORLD WAS LOST

When we turn to the south, we see a great difference. The lands of the southern half of the world, New Zealand, Australia, Africa and South America, all point to the antarctic regions, but are separated from them by thousands of miles of open sea, which forever surges round what is believed to be a vast polar continent, covered deep with ice like Greenland. No exploring ship ever crossed the equator southwards till 1470, so the great sea and the hidden antarctic regions lay through the centuries in absolute solitude.

Not so the north polar region. Nations particularly fond of daring adventure, such as the Norsemen, the Dutch, the British, all living within easy reach of the most approachable gate in the icy wall that surrounds it, early began to make their way thither. Perhaps they were partly attracted by the wish to find out whence came the huge bergs, or mountains of ice, floating down from the north, dazzling white, flecked out with glowing colors in the sunshine, gray and terrible at night. And the immense whales, too, were early and eagerly sought for in the icy seas of the North.

We are carried back a thousand years, into the presence of the noble hero-king, Alfred the Great, to listen with him to the story of the first recorded arctic expedition. Ohthere, who dwelt "northmost of all the Norsemen," had so strongly within his heart the passion of discovery that he could not sleep for thinking of what the unknown North might hold. So he gladly left his herds of 600 reindeer and his other riches, and pushed on north and east till he found the White Sea and the Dwina River and the North Cape. Let us, in imagination, watch the king's face as Ohthere tells of the wonders he had seen; an amused smile breaks over it at the description of the huge fat walruses and their "noble teeth." But Ohthere, to prove the truth of his story, holds out in his brown hands the walrus-teeth he has brought as a present to the Saxon king, and Alfred is convinced, and goes on with his notes, and has the story all written down in his book.

Ohthere spoke of the natives he had found so unfriendly near the mouth of the Dwina. Unpromising as is the country stretching up to the frozen polar sea, there were then, and are now, men, women, and children who live scattered over the wide and dreary expanse, belonging to a very old family of nations—poor relations, we may call them, of the Chinese. Most of them are Eskimos, or Innuits, and these are found chiefly round about the shores of North America and the islands. Other tribes of the same family live on the desolate tundras of Asia, which are frozen hard during the winter, and form a swampy morass during the summer.

THE HARD LIVES OF THE PEOPLE OF THE FROZEN NORTH

It is difficult for us to imagine their life. No fruits, no vegetables; a little moss, but no trees, no cornfields, no towns, no way of getting about except

BRAVE MEN WHO WENT IN QUEST OF THE POLES

Abruzzi

Peary

Nansen

Parry

The race of men of all nations for the North Pole.

Sir John Franklin

Jackson

Hudson

Captain Cook

Sir James Ross

Scott

Amundsen

Shackleton

in small boats made of skins, or on sledges drawn by dogs or reindeer. For food, clothing, oil to give light and heat, they depend on the seals, walruses, bears, whales, foxes, and fish that share the arctic solitudes with them.

In winter, when the sun does not rise for months, they live in round houses, like inverted bowls, or beehives, built of blocks of frozen snow, which thaw as summer appears. And such a summer! For the sun, once up, stays up later and later till it does not go to bed at all. Then they take to tents made of skins.

THE MEN WHO PUSHED FARTHER AND FARTHER INTO THE UNKNOWN NORTH

But interesting as are the Eskimos and their ways, it has not been chiefly to study them that men have been ever ready, from the days of Ohthere to our own, to venture their lives in pushing still farther and farther into the unknown regions of ice and snow. Whalers at all times have sailed in search of the oil-giving monster, and have added little by little to the knowledge of northern coasts; and, following Ohthere, many brave Northmen visited Greenland and Iceland, and sighted surrounding islands and coasts. From the days of Columbus many discoverers sailed about Newfoundland and the St. Lawrence River, trying to find a way to China and the East by a northwest passage; and others, somewhat later, pushed just as eagerly towards the northeast, past the North Cape, hoping to find a quick way in that direction to trade with the rich East.

As we look carefully at our north polar map, we think of the labors of the dauntless men who faced, one after another, the storms and the ice and the dangers of starvation in small and badly provided boats, to find out the secrets of the Far North. We remember the voyages of early explorers and how they opened up trade in the White Sea port of Russia. On the northeast coast of Nova Zembla, we find Barents Land, and a bay called Ice Haven. These recall one of the most interesting of the voyages of these days. Barents and his stalwart friends were Dutchmen, and they sailed from Holland, carrying with them silks and velvets with which they hoped to open up trade with China by the northeast route.

THE LITTLE HOUSE WHERE A FEW DUTCHMEN SPENT THE LONG ARCTIC NIGHT

Thrilling are the accounts of buffetings and adventures in the stormy Arctic Ocean during the short summer; and when the ice closed in, and the storms made it impossible for them to go farther, they were forced to run their ship ashore and make a house of shelter from her planks, and live as best they could in it for many weary months all through the long arctic night.

Bears and foxes prowled around them, and far away indeed they felt from the bright, shining homes where they were so sorely missed. When the spring came at last, they built an open boat, and in it made their way homewards, landing on the north of Europe, where they were picked up by a ship, but the heroic Barents died in the open boat. It gives us an idea of the sort of men these were when we read their journal, and find that they never missed a chance of airing and refolding the precious goods with which they had been entrusted. In the Rijks Museum at Amsterdam are the trifles they left behind them in the House of Safety at Ice Haven; little books and instruments, pieces of clothing, candles that will still light. They were discovered by a Norwegian captain and

presented to Holland in memory of her gallant sons 274 years after their owners had closed the door and started on their adventurous journey homeward.

THE MEN WHO MAPPED OUT THE WORLD AROUND THE NORTH POLE

And still the north polar map went on filling up, as brave men continued exploring and naming shores and straits, islands and coasts. We can only mention a few out of their great number, such as Hudson and Baffin, Bering and Cook, Ross and Parry. These last bring us to the name of Franklin. He made several expeditions about Hudson Bay and Great Bear Lake, surveyed many miles of coast, and, after superhuman exertions, died while trying to find the Northwest Passage, near King William's Land. Not one man came home to tell the sad tale.

THE RELICS OF SIR JOHN FRANKLIN THAT MAY BE SEEN IN LONDON

This was in 1845, and many expeditions were sent out from America and England to seek the two lost vessels, the *Erebus* and the *Terror*, and to discover what had become of the brave men who had sailed in them. It was years before any traces of their fate were found in the great white North. Alas! they had all died from cold and hunger.

The numerous expeditions that went out to search for news of Franklin gained much knowledge of the great mass of islands and straits at the extreme north of the New World, and the Northwest Passage was actually traversed in 1851 by McClure. Five ships belonging to one of these expeditions were abandoned by order of the leader. Only one, the *Resolute*, was ever heard of again. She drifted 1000 miles, and the American captain who found her took her into port; and in the end she was refitted and restored, even to the libraries of the officers, and sent across the Atlantic as a present to the British people.

HOW MEN CREPT NEARER AND NEARER TO THE TOP OF THE WORLD

And still the efforts went on, in spite of loss of life, loss of ships, and hardships of every description. Captain Hall, an American, spent five years among the Eskimos, and gives us, in his book, most interesting descriptions of their way of life. The islands of Spitzbergen were thoroughly examined, also those of Nova Zembla. Austrians discovered and named Franz Josef Land, far north of Nova Zembla, and ever the boldest and most fortunate crept a little nearer, to the mysterious region of the Pole itself. In 1875 the *Alert* and *Discovery* sailed away under Captain Nares, to try to reach the Pole by Smith's Sound. After being frozen in the ice for the winter, when the men made many exciting and dangerous sledge journeys they returned home, having opened up large tracts of new country.

After some years full of tragedies in arctic exploration, much attention was centered on Greenland, that huge island over 1400 miles long, whose interior is covered with thick ice which has filled up the valleys almost to the level of the mountains. Being very high, as well as far north, the cold is intense on the plateau of Greenland, and it is almost impossible for a human being to live there. It is only on the narrow coast-strip, chiefly on the west, that there are settlements of Eskimo and Europeans.

THE FIRST CROSSING OF GREENLAND BY NANSEN AND HIS COMPANIONS

Nansen, the brave Norwegian, was the first to cross Greenland from one coast to the other. It was a most difficult journey, toiling up for three weeks to the inland plateau, about 9000 feet high. The sledges had to be

dragged up the steep way over rough and soft ice. Once on the high, cold plateau, the ice became firmer, and the onward and downward journey was made by hoisting sails on the sledges and sending them racing down the slopes, while the four men glided along on their swift snow-shoes.

Peary, of the United States, is the great hero of discovery in the north of Greenland. During one week of one of his journeys he discovered thirty glaciers, and later succeeded in rounding the north of Greenland. Standing on a tremendous cliff 4000 feet high, he had a magnificent view, which proved to him that Greenland was indeed an island. As we shall see, this was only the beginning of Peary's achievements.

Want of money to pay for all the necessary things needed in arctic exploration has often stopped eager enthusiasts; so when Alfred Harmsworth, later Lord Northcliffe, undertook to provide funds for Mr. Jackson's journey to Franz Josef Land, great was the explorer's satisfaction and pleasure. With provisions for three years, the party set off from the Thames in the *Windward*, and at Archangel they took on board, besides dogs, four ponies, and some houses that could be easily put up for winter quarters. They spent three winters on Franz Josef Land, exploring with sledges and making valuable maps. The *Windward* went home, and left the expedition there while she brought more stores, and then came back again and brought the explorers home.

THE WRECKED SHIP THAT DRIFTED WHERE NO MAN HAD EVER BEEN

A most interesting meeting took place in this far-distant land, while the *Windward* had gone home for stores, between Jackson and Nansen. Nansen had thought much about the drifting of some wreckage frozen fast in the ice, part of a vessel that had gone down near the islands of New Siberia, whence comes the fossil ivory. This wreckage was found on the southwest coast of Greenland three years later, after having drifted right across the Pole. So Nansen felt convinced if he could only get the right sort of ship, strong enough to resist the terrible pressure of the ice, that there would be more chance of reaching the Pole by letting her drift across in the moving ice-current than by trying to get over the rough barrier of ice in the old ways.

So the *Fram*—the *Forward*, as the name means in English—was specially built and fitted out, and Nansen passed resolutely onward round the coast of Norway, through the Kara Sea, past Cape Chelyuskin, the most northerly land of Asia, and entered the masses of ice, into which the *Fram* was soon frozen, three months after she had left Christiania.

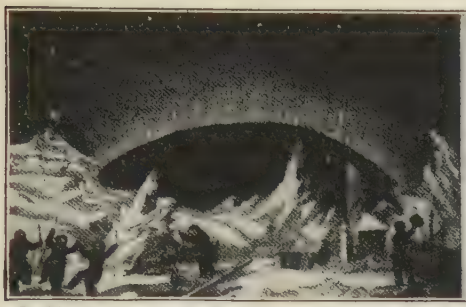
The account of how the *Fram* drifted slowly on, how usefully and pleasantly the time was passed, how charming and homely were the festivals on birthdays and at Christmas, all reads like an impossible romance when we think of the bitter cold, the terrible winds, and the lonely ship lifted bodily up by the ice till her bottom could almost be seen.

"THE LADY IN THE CLOAK," WHO BROUGHT FOOD TO NANSEN AND HIS MEN

The polar bear, "the lady in the cloak," was almost the only visitor; and glad indeed the explorers were to see her and her friends—when short of food!

After nearly two years, Nansen thought he, with a companion, could accomplish more by leaving the ship and sledging with dogs towards the Pole than by staying in the drifting ice any longer. So he set off in March, 1895, with Lieutenant Johansen, on a

SCENES IN THE DRAMA OF POLAR EXPEDITIONS



In this picture we see the British flag planted at the North Magnetic Pole by Sir James Ross. He accompanied the expedition of his uncle, Sir John Ross, that started in 1829 and spent about five years amid arctic snows.

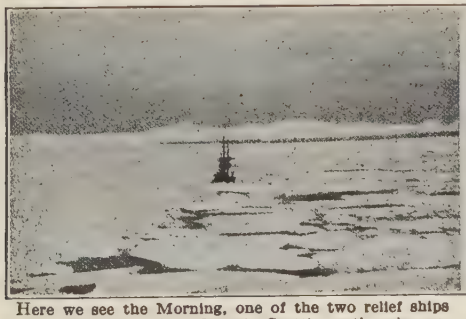
Ross's ship, the Victory, became ice-bound, and had to be abandoned, the crew making their way over the snow till they found a whaling vessel to take them home. Here we see the men building snow walls round their ship.

Sir William Parry made no fewer than five arctic expeditions, and in this picture we see the two vessels with which he made his second voyage, in the year 1819. On returning to England, Parliament awarded him $25,000.

In 1902 a German expedition under the command of Professor von Drygalski went to the antarctic regions and discovered Kaiser Wilhelm II. Land, off the coast of which their vessel, the Gauss, wintered, as shown here.

In this picture we see some of the German explorers who went to the antarctic regions in the Gauss in 1902, camping out on the ice. They returned home in 1903.

This picture, which shows the little house and tent occupied by Captain Peary on one of his polar expeditions, is from a photograph that was taken at midnight.



Here we see the Morning, one of the two relief ships that went to the aid of Captain Scott's south polar expedition in 1903. To the left the solid ice can be seen.

The explorers with Captain Scott's expedition used drag-nets to examine the life of the Antarctic Ocean. When dragging, they sheltered behind snow walls.

most dangerous journey. They succeeded in reaching a little farther north than did the *Fram*, but their journey lasted many months. They spent the long winter, sleeping most of the time in a little hut they put up near Cape Flora, in Franz Josef Land.

Great was their joy when they fell in with Jackson, and at last the *Windward* took Nansen back to Norway, where he soon had news of the *Fram*, which in due time had forced her way out of the ice.

Rear Admiral Peary in Fur Costume Which is Distinctive of All His Work.

How Peary Discovered the North Pole

To Rear Admiral Peary of the United States goes the honor of discovering the North Pole. For three centuries men had sought the "top of the world," and twenty years of work were spent by this great scientist, engineer and explorer before he nailed the Stars and Stripes to the pole on April 6, 1909.

Peary had already done splendid work in preparation for his supreme feat. We have learned how he found out about Greenland, and you can read his story in his book called "Northward Over the Great Ice."

His wife spent several winters with him in the north and it was in the polar regions that their little daughter was born. She was so fair as contrasted with the swarthy Eskimos that they called her the "Snow Baby."

Peary's Ship The "Roosevelt" Taking Water Alongside a Glacier Near Cape York, August, 1908.

It was the second expedition of Peary's good ship *Roosevelt* and his eighth polar excursion. The ship had to be left behind while the explorer, accompanied by a Negro and four Eskimos, finally attained the goal. They had been fifty-three days on the ice with their dog teams.

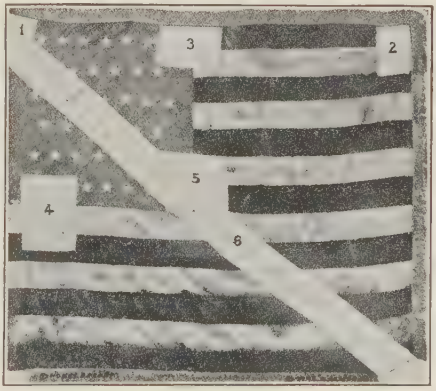
A false report of the discovery by Dr. Frederick Cook was published to the world about the same time, but everyone found out soon that it was

THE SLEDGE WHICH WENT TO THE POLE.

Peary alone who reached the pole. Congress officially thanked him and he was given the rank of Rear Admiral. Thorough geographer that he was, Peary has told about his North Pole trips in his books, "Nearest the Pole," and "The North Pole."

A COMPARISON OF THE BOREAL AND AUSTRAL POLAR REGIONS

The North Pole is situated at the center of an ocean some fifteen hundred miles in diameter; the South Pole near the center of a continent some twenty-five hundred miles in diameter. At the former Peary stood upon the frozen surface of an ocean more than two miles deep, at the latter Amundsen stood on the surface of a snow plateau over two miles above sea-level. The lands surrounding the Arctic Ocean have a comparatively abundant life, reindeer, musk-oxen, arctic hares, polar-bears, wolves, ermines and lemmings, and several species of insects and flowers being found within five hundred miles of the North Pole while the Antarctic Continent possesses no form of land mammals. On this unknown continent at the South Pole there are a variety of birds. There are five varieties of seals, and sea-elephants and sea-lions are sometimes found. There are whales and dolphins and sea life is abundant.



THE FLAG PEARY NAILED TO THE POLE.

Pieces cut from its folds mark all the "Farthest" Northern points of the Western Hemisphere.

1 and 2—Left at Cape Morris Jesup, May 16, 1900.

3—At Cape Thomas Hubbard, June 27, 1906.

4—At Cape Columbia, June 8, 1906.

5—At Peary's Farthest North, 87 6, April 21, 1906.

6—At the North Pole, April 6, 1909.

SUNRISE AT THE SOUTH POLE

ADMIRAL PEARY'S ROAD TO THE NORTH POLE

After centuries of attempts, in which many lives had been lost, the world was startled by the news that Commander Peary had at last, on April 6, 1909, reached the North Pole, an achievement that he had been struggling to accomplish for years. Here we see the route taken, and the small pictures show points on the way to the Pole.

Human beings dwell within 700 miles of the North Pole, while none are to be found within 2,300 miles of the South Pole. Hence the quest of the former began centuries earlier. But the task of reaching the South Pole was in one respect easier, for the road lay over an immovable landscape instead of over the shifting surface of a frozen ocean.

Early explorers in the south polar regions

In 1772 Captain James Cook first crossed the Antarctic Circle and penetrated those icy regions. Bellingshausen, the Russian followed him in 1819 and discovered the first land within the Antarctic Circle. Then came Weddell, who in 1823 pushed his sailing vessel into the great bay southeast of Cape Horn, named after him, Weddell Sea.

The work of Ross and the sea that was named for him

In 1839-1841 Sir James Ross made an important voyage. A few years before he had located the North Magnetic Pole. He was in command of the *Erebus* and *Terror*, two ships that a few years later were to bear the Franklin expedition to its fate near the same pole. Ross also discovered Victoria Land, almost south of New Zealand where he found an active volcano, Mt. Erebus. Here he followed the edge of the barrier of ice more than 300 miles to the eastward. Ross Sea, the great indentation in the Antarctic Continent was discovered and navigated by him and has since been the base of operations from which

A FOG BOW IN THE ANTARCTIC

This cousin of the rainbow was drawn by Dr. Wilson, artist with the ill-fated Scott expedition which perished after attaining the South Pole.

the South Pole was twice attained. Victoria Land proved to be the most accessible part of the frozen continent at the South Pole.

More Antarctic Expeditions

In the years 1892, 1893 and 1894 Scottish, German and Norwegian whalers explored the seas of Ross and Weddell in search of new whaling grounds, and in 1894 the first landing was made by some members of Bull's Norwegian crew.

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CAPTAIN ROALD AMUNDSEN

In 1899 a British expedition under Borchgrevink passed a winter on the Antarctic Continent and made at Cape Adare the first attempt at land exploration.

In 1901-1902 a German expedition determined a new part of the coast and three others, under Bruce of Scotland, Nordenskjold of Sweden, and Charcot of France, also made valuable discoveries.

Explorations of the Antarctic Continent by Scott and Shackleton

Captain Robert F. Scott, of England, selecting the Ross Sea region as

CAPTAIN AMUNDSEN ON SKIS

his base in 1901-1903, made the first serious land exploration of the Antarctic Continent. In a sledge journey he covered three hundred and eighty miles due south, reaching a point within 437 miles of the South Pole.

Following Scott, his lieutenant, Shackleton, made even a more brilliant expedition and reached a point within ninety-seven miles of the coveted pole on January 9, 1909. At this time this was the "farthest south" record.

Discovery of the South Pole

Great Britain, Norway, Germany, Australia and Japan sent expeditions into the south polar regions in 1910 and 1911, each country selecting different regions in which to work.

Captain Roald Amundsen, leader of the Norwegian expedition, started in his ship, the *Fram*, for the south polar

THE HAPPY DAYS OF CA'TAIN SCOTT

regions in 1910. On January 14, 1911 he arrived at the Bay of Whales. His equipment was well-nigh perfect for the requirements of a trip to the Pole. Amundsen put his trust in Eskimo dogs and skis to plant supply stations far to the south. He stored away sixty-six tons of seal meat as food for his men and dogs.

These labors were amply rewarded when on December 14, 1911, Amundsen and his little party, after a journey of 863 miles from camp, reached the southernmost point of the world. Large areas of land were discovered, scientific information of great value was secured and the expedition was regarded as highly successful. After his return Amundsen wrote a book entitled "The South Pole," which was published in several languages including the English.

SCOTT'S ILL-FATED QUEST OF THE SOUTH POLE

The next month following Amundsen's trip to the South Pole a British expedition under Captain Scott succeeded in reaching the coveted spot on January 18, 1912, five weeks after Amundsen. On the return trip, however, Scott and his four companions died of cold and starvation. The story of Scott's exploit is memorable among the tales of heroism.

Five men marched to the Pole. There were to have been only four; but, on the day on which the last supporting party turned back, Captain Scott, seeing how terrible had been the conditions for pulling, decided that his party should consist of five. So on January 3, 1912, he went into the tent of Commander Evans, who was in charge of one of Scott's parties and said, "If you can spare me a man from your party and make the return journey short-handed, I am sure I can now reach the Pole." Of course Com-

LAST WORDS OF CAPTAIN SCOTT
"We have been willing to give our lives for this enterprise."

mander Evans agreed although, as it chanced, the loan of one of the men of his party came near causing the loss of his own group. The man chosen to go with Scott was Lieutenant Bowers. There was no question of Evans being chosen, for he was the only one of the supporting party who could steer the way back over the 750 miles of trackless snow and ice and bring the others to the base camp. So Bowers ceased to pull the Evans sledge back toward civilization, and went with Scott to honor—and death.

Soon after the five turned from the Pole, Petty Officer Evans fell ill. His sickness held the party back during precious days when time was life.

They had to nurse and carry him. They missed his strength for pulling, and when he died, on February 17, their fate was sealed. They had not enough food to last them for the longer time their journey must take. Their speed dropped to four and five miles a day.

But even this was too much for Captain Oates whose hands and feet were terribly frost-bitten. "What can I do?" was his pathetic question to Doctor Wilson, the artist of the party. And Wilson could only answer, "Slog on; just slog on!" It was an answer typical of the spirit of the brave men who dare the unknown polar lands. Very quietly one morning Oates said to his comrades, "I am going outside, and I may be some time." That was all; he would not distress them by saying farewell.

And so only three men pushed on—Scott, Wilson and Bowers—stumbling feebly over the deepening snow, chilled and starving, knowing that death was at hand. The blizzard grew fiercer. They crept into their little tent. The sledge and snowshoes were left ready for immediate use, but they were never needed again. The blizzard kept them prisoners to the end. They took their little flags into the tent and furled them beside their sleeping bags. At the end of four days' imprisonment Scott wrote his immortal message to the world, "We have been willing to give our lives for this enterprise."

Eight months passed away and then one of the two searching parties that had been sent out discovered the little tent. In it were the dead heroes, the diaries, the letters they had written and the photographs they had taken.

The Expeditions of Stefansson and of Rasmussen

Since Peary's discovery of the North Pole various expeditions have added by their researches to the world's knowledge of the Arctic regions.

Stefansson's three expeditions made important studies of the geography, the geology, the peoples and their relation to this frozen land. Some new lands were discovered and others mapped.

Rasmussen, studying the problem of the development of the Eskimos, has spent years journeying some 20,000 miles among the natives. He has discovered some unknown Eskimo tribes and also several skeletons and other traces of the unfortunate Franklin expedition.

The Expeditions of Donald MacMillan

On numerous polar voyages Donald MacMillan has made many new discoveries. He found records of the British expedition of 1875 under Captain Nares. He was the first to reach Finlay Land, seen some sixty years before the expedition which went in search of Franklin. He was in command of the Crocker Land Expedition in 1913-17. He was the first to explore the northern, eastern and southern sides of North Cornwall, and to travel the eastern shore of Ellesmereland. He has also studied the Smith Sound Eskimos very thoroughly.

MacMillan, in an important expedition of 1925, set out from Maine with two ships, one carrying three airplanes in charge of Lieutenant-Commander Byrd of the United States Navy. Although bad weather prevented the long flights that had been planned, many new and significant results were achieved. Scientists sent out with him by the National Geographic Society made detailed studies of the bird, animal and plant life. Their photographers took the first natural color pictures of the region, and a Navy man took special observations of the temperatures, velocity

of the wind and other factors which may benefit future aerial explorations. An interesting feature of this expedition was its constant radio communication with civilization, messages being received as well as broadcast. Messages from MacMillan were received as far away as Hawaii.

Amundsen's Arctic Explorations and his Flight over the North Pole

In 1923 Amundsen sent his ship, the *Maud*, to drift across the Arctic Ocean with the ice drift. The expedition reached Nome three years after its start from Bering Strait. On the voyage many scientific observations as to electricity, magnetism, soundings and tides were obtained by scientists working with the Carnegie Institution of Washington.

Amundsen planned an aerial trip for the same time but it was postponed until 1925 when he with an American, Lincoln Ellsworth, and four other men started from Svalbard (Spitsbergen) in two airplanes. After six hours, during which strong winds drove them off their course, both airplanes were forced to land. Ellsworth's plane was so badly damaged that efforts were concentrated upon saving the other one. It took twenty-five days of heartbreaking work with inadequate tools and about 300 tons of snow to build a runway. After five attempts a successful "take-off" was made with the entire party aboard. A mile from Svalbard they were forced again to make a landing but were rescued by a sealing vessel and taken to King's Bay.

In 1926 Amundsen, Ellsworth and Colonel Umberto Nobile made a second attempt in a dirigible, the *Norge*, designed by Colonel Nobile. Leaving Svalbard on May 11, the party crossed the Pole and reached Teller, Alaska, seventy-one hours later, having seen 100,000 square miles of unknown territory and having proved that only a deep Polar Sea lies between the Pole and Alaska.

Byrd's Flight to the North Pole

Lieutenant-Commander Byrd, who had been with MacMillan in earlier polar work was the first man to fly to the North Pole. Peary was away from civilization for 400 days when he attained the pole, but Byrd left Svalbard in the morning of May 9, 1926 and returned the same day. The flight was made in the *Josephine Ford*, a three-engined Fokker airplane.

CAPTAIN DONALD B. MACMILLAN

STATUE OF LIBERTY ENLIGHTENING THE WORLD

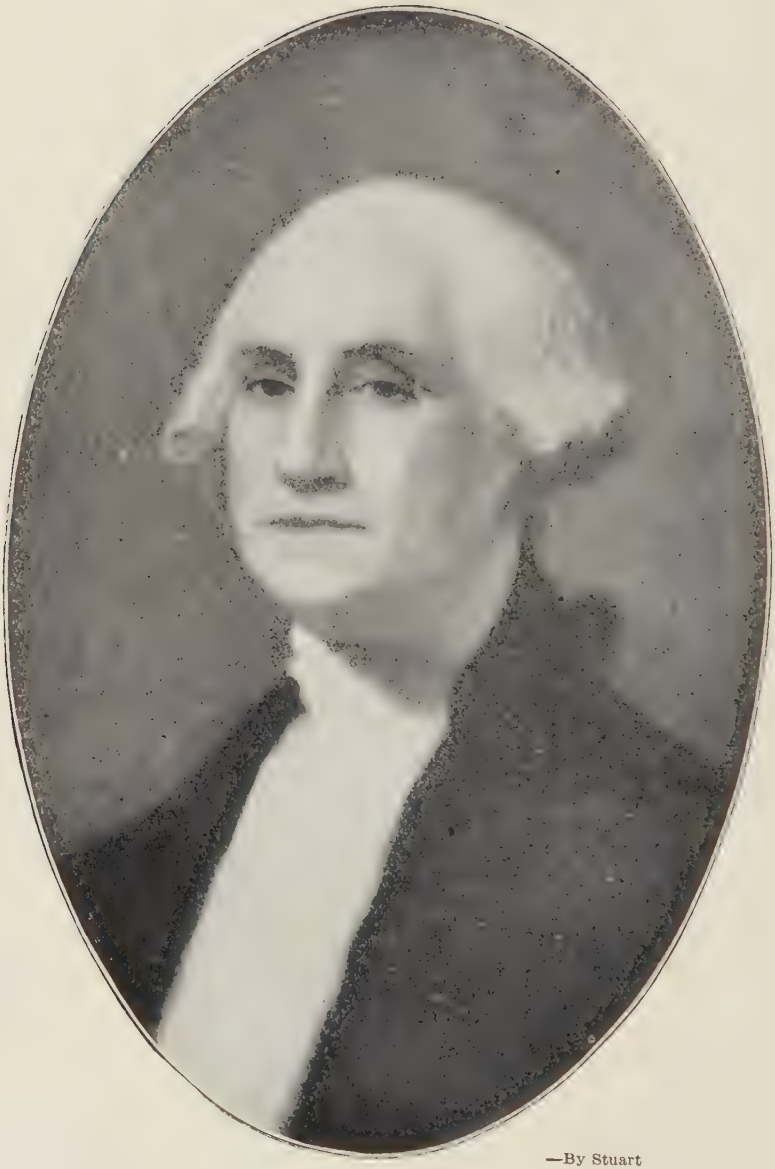
Sculptured by Bartholdi and erected at the entrance of New York Harbor as emblematic of the civilizing influences of liberty upon modern civilization.

Great Americans

George Washington
Benjamin Franklin
Nathanael Greene
John Paul Jones
John Barry
Patrick Henry
Samuel Adams
Philip Schuyler
James Madison
Gilbert Motier De Lafayette
Thomas Jefferson
Alexander Hamilton
Daniel Boone
Horace Mann
John Marshall
Eli Whitney
Robert Fulton
Oliver Hazard Perry
Thomas MacDonough
Andrew Jackson
Dewitt Clinton
Elias Howe
Henry Clay
Daniel Webster
Samuel F. B. Morse
Cyrus W. Field
Peter Cooper

Louis Agassiz
Abraham Lincoln
Ulysses S. Grant
Robert Edward Lee
David Glasgow Farragut
Cyrus Hall McCormick
Samuel Pierpont Langley
Andrew Carnegie
Samuel Gompers
Theodore Roosevelt
Woodrow Wilson
Clara Barton
George Dewey
Alexander Graham Bell
Frances Willard

Thomas Alva Edison
Herbert Clark Hoover
Stephen Moulton Babcock
Carrie Chapman Catt
Jane Addams
M. Carey Thomas
Louise Homer
Edith Wharton
Cecilia Beaux
Julia Lathrop



—By Stuart

GEORGE WASHINGTON

GEORGE WASHINGTON, Born 1732—Died 1799

Pale is the February sky,
  And brief the midday's sunny hours;
The wind-swept forest seems to sigh
  For the sweet time of leaves and flowers.

Yet has no month a prouder day,
  Not even when the summer broods
O'er meadows in their fresh array,
  Or autumn tints the glowing woods.

For this chill season now again
  Brings, in its annual round, the morn
When, greatest of the sons of men,
  Our glorious Washington was born.

—BRYANT'S "The Twenty-second of February."

EVERYONE is familiar with the portrait of Washington, for it hangs upon the walls of schoolhouses throughout the land. But do you know anything about his boyhood? Did you ever try to picture him in his home in Virginia, playing with his younger brothers and sisters; or riding over his father's plantation by the side of his older half-brothers?

George Washington was born at Bridges Creek, Virginia. His childhood was passed near Fredericksburg, on a fine estate to which his parents moved when he was very young. Here Washington's father, a man of excellent education, and his beautiful mother reared their large family. Lawrence, the oldest child, was sent to England to be educated, for the family was of good English ancestry, and the Washingtons in America still loved their old home.

There were no good country schools near Fredericksburg in those early days. George Washington learned to "read, write, and cipher" in an "old field schoolhouse," where the parish sexton was teacher.

Before the boy was eleven years old his father died, and after that his mother had to fill the place of both parents. She tried to teach George self-control, for he had a high temper, and to implant in him a love of honor and justice. After a time she sent him to live with his brother Augustine at Bridges Creek, that he might go to a better school.

It is clear that at the age of thirteen Washington regarded his school work very seriously. He learned to draw up documents and keep accounts, and this training was of great benefit to him in later years. Some of the neat copy books that he made in these days are still in existence.

Washington was a tall, strong boy, fond of all kinds of athletics. His playmates found it hard to keep pace with him, but they loved him and looked upon him as a leader who would settle fairly all disputes. He could throw a stone farther than any other boy, and excelled in jumping and wrestling. He was a great lover of horses, and was never afraid to ride any that he could mount. His

BIRTHPLACE OF GEORGE WASHINGTON, WESTMORELAND COUNTY, VA.

mother's favorite colt was so wild that no one but George dared to put a bridle on him.

During the last years of his school life Washington studied mathematics and land surveying. The country was still young; immense tracts of land were unexplored; in fact, the entire territory west of the Mississippi River was an untrodden wilderness. So surveying was one of the most useful occupations for which a youth could fit himself.

Lawrence Washington was now married and lived on a large estate on the Potomac River, where George would spend weeks at a time. Lawrence named his plantation Mount Vernon, in memory of Admiral Vernon, an English commander with whom he had served in a campaign in the West Indies.

Near the broad acres of Mount Vernon lay the immense estate of Lord Fairfax, whose cousin was Lawrence Washington's wife. Fairfax, in his American home, lived exactly like an English country gentleman. He kept many horses and hounds, and enjoyed fox hunts in true English style.

Young George soon became a favorite with this jolly English lord, who delighted to take the boy with him to hunt or to ride over his vast domain. Fairfax was impressed by the lad's skill in managing horses, and by the ability he showed in surveying his brother's fields.

It chanced that Lord Fairfax's property extended so far into the wilderness that he was not certain where it ended. He therefore proposed that Washington should make a survey of his estate, and properly mark its boundaries. The youth was much pleased to undertake the task, and at the beginning of his seventeenth year, with Fairfax's son for companion, he set out to make the survey.

Before he returned he had surveyed a large part of the lovely valley through which the Shenandoah River flows. He had learned how to enjoy the rough life of the woods; how to build camp fires and to cook; how to sleep comfortably under the stars.

He had become hardened by long rides and tramps in bad weather, and had met many Indians whom he made his friends. Through the influence of Lord Fairfax, Washington was appointed public surveyor. His measurements were so accurate that they are used to this day.

The story of the French and Indian War has already been told, but it will be interesting to review Washington's part in it. You will remember that the English had no idea of allowing the French to hold the country between the Mississippi River and the Alleghany Mountains. In the year 1753 they sent a message to the French, commanding them to stop building forts at Presque Isle, Le Bœuf, and Venango.

George Washington was chosen to carry this letter through the wild country to the French commander. Washington was only twenty-one years of age at this time. In the depths of winter, through dense woods and over swollen streams, he traveled on horseback five hundred miles and safely delivered the message. With the sealed reply in his pocket he set out on the perilous homeward journey.

The country was full of Indians, whom the French had tried by every means in their power to win to their side. This made Washington's ride extremely dangerous, for the Indians laid many traps for him. Yet he not only escaped, but sometimes made friends of the very savages who tried to capture him.

The letter which Washington carried back was not satisfactory to the English. "We can plainly see," said they, "that the French will never peaceably give up that country. There is nothing left for us to do but to send troops to the frontier."

The point where the Alleghany and Monongahela Rivers join to form the Ohio, seemed to be the best location for a military stronghold, and accordingly the English began to build a fort there. But the French, too, wanted this junction. One day, to the great surprise of the handful of Englishmen at work, one thousand Frenchmen appeared and drove them out of the half-built fort. The French then took possession, finished the work, and named the fort Duquesne, in honor of the governor of Canada.

In the spring of 1754, Colonel Fry was sent out with a force of English to drive the French from this important post. Washington was second in command, but, by the death of his colonel, he soon became head of the expedition.

For one month the English troops marched forward with all possible speed. Then at Great Meadows they met a body of Frenchmen, and no sooner did the enemies meet than firing began. Ten Frenchmen were killed and twenty taken prisoners, while Washington lost only one man.

When the excitement of the first skirmish was over and victory was his, Washington exclaimed, "There is something charming in the sound of the whistling bullets." Years afterward, when he had learned too well what war really meant, he was asked if he remembered ever to have made such a remark. Gravely the great commander replied: "If I said so, it was when I was very young."

Washington realized the danger of so long a march through the enemy's country, so he ordered a halt and in great haste built Fort Necessity as a place of retreat. Here he was overtaken by a large force of Frenchmen, who outnumbered him four to one. As his provisions were nearly exhausted, he was obliged to surrender and return to Virginia.

The death of Lawrence Washington had placed George in possession of Mount Vernon, which was ever afterward his home. But he had hardly time to begin to enjoy the quiet country life, when again he felt called to public service.

England was now thoroughly alive to the necessity of driving out the French. Regular troops were sent to America in the summer of 1755, under the command of General Braddock. When Washington rode over from Mount Vernon to Alexandria, where the well-trained redcoats were assembling, he felt a strong desire to join Braddock's army, and the general was delighted to have so valuable a man on his staff.

With banners flying and drums beating, the troops left Alexandria on a pleasant April day. Braddock was an experienced commander, but knew nothing of war in the wilderness. When Washington warned him of the dangers from Indians, he haughtily replied: "These savages may indeed be a formidable enemy to raw American militia, but upon the king's regular and disciplined troops, sir, it is impossible they should make an impression."

Brave, but mistaken, General Braddock! The chariot in which he gaily set out, a bodyguard galloping on each side, had to be abandoned in the rough, narrow mountain roads. A hard march indeed he then found it. After a time Washington advised sending out scouting parties to clear the woods of Indians. Braddock laughed at this

and with England's colors flying in the wind pressed boldly on. This was a fatal error; for what Washington feared soon happened.

With terrible yells and war whoops the Indians opened a murderous fire from behind trees and bushes. The poor soldiers were mercilessly shot down without even seeing their enemies. Unused to this kind of fighting the boasted "king's regulars" became panic-stricken. They did not stop to obey their officers, but fled in terror, firing wildly as they ran. Often they killed their own men.

Braddock remained in the thick of the fight until he was borne from the field fatally wounded. Washington had two horses shot under him, and four bullets passed through his coat sleeve. The English army was completely routed. Before Braddock breathed his last, he acknowledged to Washington that he should have taken his advice. This defeat was a bitter blow, but preparations were at once begun for greater efforts, and again Washington busied himself in planning the capture of Fort Duquesne.

This proved an easy task. The French had become frightened at the manner in which the colonists of New York and New England were seizing French strongholds in the north, so they resolved to retreat. They blew up the magazine, set fire to the fort, and marched out the very day before Washington's men came up. The English placed their flag on the ruins, rebuilt the fort, and named it Fort Pitt.

Washington resigned his commission in the army in 1759, and in the same year was married to Mrs. Martha Custis, a young widow. At this time Washington was well known throughout the colonies. Though only twenty-seven years of age, he was everywhere looked upon as one of the best military leaders. He was made a member of the Virginia legislature, and was present when the House passed a vote of thanks for the services he had rendered his country. The young man, so bold and daring in the saddle and on the battlefield, rose to reply; but he blushed, stammered, and could not utter a word. "Sit down, Mr. Washington," said the Speaker, smiling, "your modesty equals your valor, and that surpasses the power of any language I possess."

Washington loved the country life at Mount Vernon. Instead of trusting his estate to overseers, he looked after all details himself. His early training in the methodical keeping of accounts now stood him in good stead. The handsome mansion became noted for its hospitality. There were many wealthy planters in Virginia, and life there was much gayer than in New England among the strict Puritans. Mrs. Washington rode out in her chariot drawn by four horses, with black postilions in livery. Washington never lost the love of hunting that he acquired when, as a boy, he rode by the side of Lord Fairfax, and many were the fox hunts, ending in jolly dinners, that the master of Mount Vernon enjoyed with his friends. When Mrs. Custis married Washington, she had two charming children whom he loved as his own, and tenderly cared for. And so passed happily the first years of his married life.

When Patrick Henry returned from the First Continental Congress, some one asked him whom he considered the greatest man at the Congress. Henry's reply was: "If you speak of solid information and sound judgment, Colonel Washington is unquestionably the greatest man." After the famous Virginia convention at which Henry declared that the colo-

nists must fight, Washington wrote to his brother: "It is my full intention, if needful, to devote my life and fortune to the cause of liberty."

When the Second Continental Congress met in 1775, the first blood of the Revolution had been shed at Lexington and Concord. It was necessary for Congress to come at once to the support of the brave minutemen, and to organize a regular army with a commander-in-chief. When John Adams rose and said: "I have but one gentleman in mind for that important command, a gentleman from Virginia, who is well known to us all," all eyes were upon the modest young colonel, who quickly darted out of the room.

Washington was unanimously chosen commander-in-chief of the army. With a full understanding of the great trust placed in his hands, he solemnly pledged himself to devote his time and energy to the cause of freedom. But he declined to accept any pay for his services.

On the 21st of June, 1775, the commander set out on horseback from Philadelphia for Boston, accompanied by his major generals, Lee and Schuyler. They halted at New York and learned the details of the battle of Bunker Hill. With increased speed Washington pressed on towards Cambridge, where headquarters had been provided for him in a fine old mansion, afterward the home of the poet Longfellow. As he rode into camp, the shouts of the delighted soldiers and the roaring of cannon gave him a welcome. Under an old elm tree, afterwards called "The Washington Elm," General Washington drew his sword, and took formal command of the army.

Captain Daniel Morgan of New Jersey had been with Washington under Braddock. When his young Virginia friend was made commander-in-chief, Morgan marched his little company of sharpshooters to Cambridge, covering the six hundred miles in three weeks.

As Washington learned that the English in Canada were planning to attack New York, he sent troops northward. The army left behind was without ammunition. There was, therefore, wild rejoicing among the Cambridge troops when General Knox appeared one day with forty cannon. He had captured Fort Ticonderoga, and had dragged the guns all the way to Cambridge with ox teams and sleds.

The time had now come when the British were to be driven out of Boston. One night in March, 1776, under Washington's direction, hundreds of men worked silently in the moonlight and threw up intrenchments on Dorchester Heights. The next morning the British officers were astonished. Said one of them: "At daybreak we discovered two redoubts on Dorchester Point, and two smaller ones on their flanks. They were all raised during last night with an expedition equal to that of the genii belonging to Aladdin's wonderful lamp. From these hills the Americans command the whole town, so that we must drive them from their post or desert the place."

General Howe, who had forced Prescott from Bunker Hill, could scarcely believe his eyes when he beheld this fortress through the morning fog. "These rebels," he exclaimed, "have done more work in one night than my whole army would have done in a month." Before this he had said that he "hoped the rebels would attack him"; but he was not so anxious to fight now.

He saw, however, that something must be done. So between two and three thousand men were sent on transports to Castle William, where

other British troops were quartered. While the troops were on the water a violent storm came up. The boats could make no headway, but lay tossing at the mercy of the gale for two days, while the rain fell in torrents, and wild winds piled the surf so high that the transports could not land.

When the storm at last was over, General Howe was vexed to find that the Americans had had time to strengthen their breastworks, and that he could not possibly drive them out. His fleet lay fully exposed to the fire from Dorchester Heights. There was nothing to do but retreat, so he resolved to take his army to Halifax. At four o'clock in the morning the Americans were cheered by the sight of the entire British fleet, laden with soldiers and refugees, putting out to sea.

What a triumph for Washington! In only a few months, with his farmer soldiers, he had driven out of Boston an army of veterans, commanded by experienced generals. Congress passed a unanimous vote of thanks, and the whole nation praised him.

It was clear from the movements of the British that they meant to make their next attack on New York, for they desired to obtain control of the Hudson River. Accordingly, Washington hurried his army to that point. Fortifications had been erected on the New York and New Jersey shores, but thousands of British troops were encamped in Brooklyn and on Staten Island. It was impossible for Washington to make out whether the enemy intended to attack New York itself, or that part of Long Island that lay just across the East River. When too late, he found that the latter was to be the fighting point. In the battle of Long Island, waged on the site where Brooklyn now stands, the Americans were defeated.

The night that followed was a sleepless one for the commander-in-chief, and daybreak showed him the dangerous position of his army. With his telescope he could make out that they were completely surrounded. Nothing was left but to withdraw as quickly as possible. The retreat was so well planned that Washington became a greater hero than ever. That night, under cover of darkness, the regiments were marched down to the water and embarked in boats, while sentinels remained in sight above the breastworks, so that the British might not suspect what was happening.

By the time that the last troops pushed out from the shore a thick fog had lowered, preventing the enemy from seeing the American intrenchment. When morning dawned, not an American soldier remained. Washington refused to enter a boat until the last man was aboard. For forty-eight hours he had had no sleep, and for the greater part of that time had been in the saddle.

The British had yet to learn that Washington would never stay beaten. On Christmas night, 1776, with between two and three thousand men, he crossed the Delaware River, made dangerous by huge cakes of floating ice and, marching nine miles in a blinding snowstorm, surprised the enemy at Trenton. He captured a thousand prisoners and a large quantity of powder. This brilliant victory, together with his success in the battle of Princeton on January 3 following, cheered the army and the country.

After the battle of Trenton the great commander was sorely in need of money for his army. So he appealed for help to Robert Morris of Philadelphia. Washington's letter was delivered before daybreak. Without waiting for the sun to rise, Mr. Morris started out in the cold winter morning

and went from house to house among his friends, begging them to lend him all the money they could spare. In a few hours fifty thousand dollars were on their way to General Washington. Many times afterward did Mr. Morris lend from his own fortune to the government. There were times when it would have been almost impossible to carry on the war without his aid.

In 1777, at the battle of Brandywine, twenty-five miles from Philadelphia, each side lost over a thousand men, and the Americans were finally driven from the field. Again, at Germantown, they met defeat. But their attacks were so daring and their bravery so great that the eyes of Europeans were turned upon America. They found, to their amazement, that untrained farmers could successfully fight disciplined troops, and that the American army was commanded by a military genius.

Our brave soldiers, suffering from cold and hunger, with ragged clothing, and shoes so worn that blood marked their footsteps, marched to winter quarters at Valley Forge. Many were ill and obliged to seek shelter in farmhouses until trees could be cut down and tents built.

But help was soon to come, for Benjamin Franklin was in France, fighting for his country just as earnestly as Washington was fighting here, though in a different way. Through Franklin's influence France, ever ready to see England beaten, promised to lend us money and to aid us with soldiers and ships.

When this news reached Valley Forge, the poor, half-starved soldiers shouted for joy. Other encouragement came when a splendid German soldier, Baron von Steuben, offered to drill the undisciplined troops.

Among the many bitter trials which the commander-in-chief had to endure was the treason of Benedict Arnold. At the beginning of the war Arnold was one of the bravest fighters in the American army. Washington made him a general and intrusted him with the command of the fort at West Point on the Hudson River. But in a mad moment of envy and spite at some fancied wrong, Arnold turned traitor. With a British messenger, Major André, he entered into a plot to surrender West Point to the English. Happily the plot was discovered in time. André was hanged as a spy, and Arnold would have been executed as a traitor had he not escaped into the enemy's lines.

Strong and brave man as he was, General Washington shed tears when he walked into Arnold's house a few hours after the traitor had escaped, and learned for the first time of the treachery of this trusted officer.

Arnold received a large sum of money for his betrayal, but this did not bring him happiness. After the war he lived in England, but no one trusted him or respected him. On his deathbed he asked for the uniform that he had worn the day he made his escape, and which he had always kept. "Let me die in this old uniform in which I fought so many battles for my country," said he. "God forgive me for ever putting on another."

In the following chapters we shall learn more details of the Revolution, as we study the lives of great men who took part in it. It required seven long years of fighting and suffering to bring the weary struggle to a close. The siege of Yorktown in 1781 ended with the surrender of the British army. In the South Lord Cornwallis commanded the English, and Nathanael Greene the American troops. Slowly but surely Greene drove the enemy out of North and South Carolina and into Virginia.

He had an able assistant in General Marion, who hunted the British army through the low, wet lands of the South, and was so feared and hated by the English that they called him the "Swamp Fox." When Cornwallis reached Virginia, he found American troops under General Lafayette ready to dog the heels of the British and drive them to Yorktown. Here Cornwallis tried to fortify himself.

Washington, who was now with that part of the army which lay near New York watching the movements of General Clinton who commanded the English forces, felt that the hour had come for final victory. French warships were in the harbor, and these were immediately sent to Yorktown to prevent the escape of Cornwallis by sea. Then Washington hurried his own troops to Virginia. But while he was secretly rushing his army southward, a considerable force was left in New York. This caused the British general to believe that Washington was still straining every nerve to capture Clinton's army.

For more than a week after Washington reached Yorktown the city was bombarded night and day. One house is said to have had a thousand cannon balls pass through its walls. Finally, on October 19,1781, Lord Cornwallis marched out his soldiers and surrendered.

Old Lord Fairfax, who, despite his love for Washington, could never forgive his fighting against the king, heard the news of his young friend's victory and his royal ruler's defeat. Turning to his old negro servant, he said, "Carry me to bed, Joe; it's time for me to die."

The surrender of Cornwallis practically ended the war. At Fraunce's Tavern, in New York, a building still standing, Washington bade his loved officers farewell. Tears filled his eyes as he said: "With a heart full of love and gratitude I now take leave of you, most devoutly wishing that your latter days may be as prosperous and happy as your former ones have been glorious and honorable."

A general treaty of peace was signed in Paris in January, 1783. The independence so bravely fought for had been won. What should be done now? That was the question asked by the thirteen states.

The Continental Congress had been made up of men chosen by the people to act for them in carrying on the war. Now that peace was at hand this Congress was no longer enough. Our wisest men foresaw that, if we were to become a nation, we must have a strong national government. So a Federal Convention was called to meet at Philadelphia in 1787. Washington was the presiding officer. Here a great document was drawn up and signed by thirty-nine delegates. It was called the Constitution of the United States. Washington was its first signer, and Benjamin Franklin, then in his eighty-second year, was the oldest man to write his signature to this famous paper, that is still the law of the nation.

When Washington resigned his generalship with the coming of peace, he had looked forward to years of quiet happiness at Mount Vernon. But the nation, still young and weak, felt its further need of his aid. The Constitution provided that a President should be chosen, and George Washington was the unanimous choice of the people. His country could not let him enjoy the rest he had so gloriously earned.

New York City was at that time the capital of the United States. On April 30, 1789, Washington took the oath of office on the balcony of a building that stood where the subtreasury on Wall Street may now be seen.

Shouts went up from thousands of throats, myriads of flags waved in the breeze, and cannons boomed a greeting to the first President.

Do not think that Washington had an easy task before him. Years of warfare had laid the country waste and burdened her with a heavy debt. The only way to meet this debt was by taxation, and the American people had learned to resent the word "tax." Also, each colony had been in the habit of governing itself, and found it difficult to submit to any higher authority.

Many serious questions were discussed, misunderstandings and disappointments arose, and the path that Washington and his cabinet had to tread was a thorny one. The eyes of all Europe were upon the young republic, watching the experiment of a new form of government, in a land made desolate by war. "Surely such an unheard-of-thing cannot succeed," said the nations across the sea.

That America came safely through this great crisis, to the surprise of the world, was due to the wise guidance of Washington. The new nation had made no mistake in choosing its leader; for this man proved himself as great in peace as in war. That he was "first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen," was well said of him after his death. One by one the many difficulties were mastered. The objection to taxation was gradually overcome, jealousies and quarrels were satisfactorily adjusted. As the people went back to their farms, mills, and shops, the country assumed a cheerful aspect. Corn and wheat began to grow on fields so lately crushed by the tramp of soldiers. Gradually the terrors of war were forgotten and fresh hope filled every heart.

For eight years Washington served his country as President, but firmly declined a second re-election. He was allowed to retire to his beloved home with the respect, affection, and loyalty of every person in the land. "We feel like children just released from school," said Mrs. Washington, when they were back at Mount Vernon.

But only two short years were left to the "Father of his Country." While riding in a hard storm in December, 1799, he caught a severe cold, and in two days was dead. In the hour that he was laid to rest at Mount Vernon the tears of the nation told its grief. Congress had adjourned immediately on hearing of his death, and for the remainder of the session the members of the House wore mourning, while in every part of the Union there were public testimonials of grief. Even British ships lowered their flags to half-mast, while France suspended crape for ten days from all her public standards and flags.

"The fame of Washington," says John Fiske, "stands apart from every other in history. Under all dissensions and amid all the storms of party his precepts and example speak to us from the grave with a paternal appeal; and his name—by all revered—forms a universal tie of brotherhood,—a watchword of our Union."

"Thus 'mid the wreck of thrones shall live
Unmarred, undimmed, our hero's fame,
And years succeeding years shall give
Increase of honors to his name."

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN—Born 1706—Died 1790

Man is his own star, and the soul that can
Render an honest and a perfect man,
Commands all light.
—JOHN FLETCHER'S "Upon An Honest Man's Fortune."

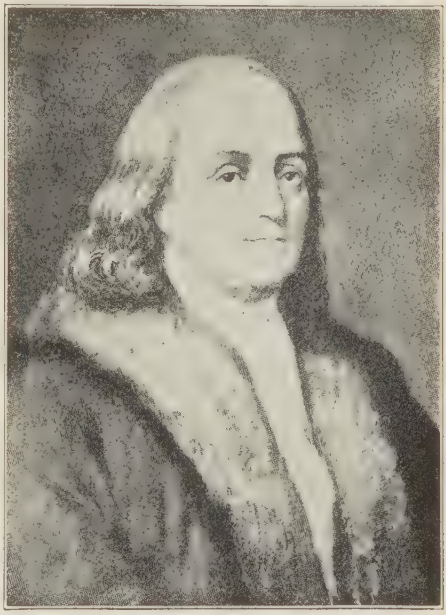
Edison, Bell and Morse are famed for their inventions; Irving, Cooper and Poe for their writings; Horace Greeley, Joseph Pulitzer and Henry Watterson for great papers that they have edited; Robert Morris for his gifts of money to his country. John Jay and John Adams are remembered gratefully because they made treaties that greatly helped the nation; Thomas Jefferson and George Washington because of their great part in the founding of our Republic. But where in our history shall we find a man to rank with the many-sided Franklin?

His discovery of the nature of lightning, proving that it was the same electricity that was seen in the Leyden jar, is enough to give him fame alongside Volta, Roentgen and Faraday. His inventions of the lightning rod, the Franklin stove and parts of the printing press are enough to put him alongside Elias Howe, Eli Whitney and Cyrus McCormick.

His founding of the Pennsylvania Gazette, today known as the Saturday Evening Post, would rank him with our greatest journalists, for the Gazette, for many years, was the most influential paper in America. His Poor Richard's Almanac and his Autobiography put him in the front rank of American writers.

He gave of his modest fortune, $20,000, a great sum for those days, to help America win her independence.

To have signed either the Declaration of Independence or the Constitution of the United States would be a great enough honor for any man, but Franklin signed them both. In fact, he had a greater part in writing the Declaration than any other man besides Thomas Jefferson, and as great a share as any in framing our Constitution.



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN

To have made and signed either the treaty of alliance with France, the treaty which won our independence, or the treaty of peace with Great Britain, the treaty which confirmed our victory, would have been enough fame for any man. But Franklin made and signed them both.

What other American has ever won the triple honor of being made a Doctor of Laws at Oxford University, being admitted to the French Academy and being elected to the Royal Society of England?

Who was this great man: journalist, author, wise philosopher, philanthropist, inventor, scientist and eminent statesman? From what distinguished blood did he spring?

His story is one of many that could have happened only in a land of democracy, a land of free education and equal chance to all. His father, at first a simple dyer, then a "candle-stick maker" had seventeen children. Benjamin, born in Boston in 1706, was the fifteenth child. From early childhood he showed a love of reading, a quickness at learning and a wonderful memory for what he had read.

At first the father thought to make him a minister, but this would have cost too much in time and money. Harvard and Yale were not for the sons of the poor in those days. So he learned first his father's trade, then after trying in vain to be allowed to turn sailor he was put to learn the printer's trade, under his older brother James, who, having brought from London a new printing press and some type, now started the second newspaper ever published in America.

Young Benjamin, reading greedily all the books he could find, amused himself by writing for his brother's paper certain articles which he slipped into the contributor's box. In many cases James Franklin published these without knowing that his fifteen year old apprentice had written them.

But James was a rather violent man, and Benjamin was a high-spirited boy. The result was quarrels, blows, and finally a flight from home to New York by the younger brother. Not finding work there, he went on to Philadelphia, landing at the Quaker City, ragged, with no work in sight and only a dollar in his pocket. He was then seventeen years old.

As he walked the streets of Philadelphia munching at one of the three loaves of bread that he had just bought, a young girl named Deborah Read, who was later to become his wife, laughed at his awkward manner and queer clothes.

After working as a printer for a while he went to London to buy a press for himself. But the credit that he had been promised he could not obtain, and he had to stay a year in the British city, working for two of the most famous printers of that time. He worked hard, saved his money, learned all that he could, studied hard during all his spare moments, and came back to Philadelphia rich in experience if not in money. Soon he was his own master and at the age of twenty-two he started publishing the Gazette, soon to be the best paper and the most widely read in all America.

As editor he was constantly urging his fellow citizens to improve their city and their state. He helped found the first public library, the first hospital, the first scientific society, the first fire department. He taught the people to pave their streets and sidewalks, to have them swept each day, to heat their houses with his stove, and to light the streets at night.

He tried to get all the colonies to join in one big union, as early as 1754. He became Postmaster General for Pennsylvania and then Deputy Postmaster General for all the colonies.

Meanwhile his electrical experiments, his discovery of the nature of lightning and his scientific inventions had spread his fame all over Europe. Honors were showered upon him. His Poor Richard's Almanac, full of wise saws and homely philosophy, was sold at the rate of ten to twenty thousand a year.

It was not strange that the colonies should have sent him to London to represent them in their struggles with

DRAFTING THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE
The committee—Franklin, Jefferson, Adams, Livingston and Sherman

Parliament and the king. It was due to Franklin's efforts that the hateful stamp act was repealed. An eminent Englishman of the time has declared that had Parliament listened to Franklin the Revolutionary War would never have been fought.

Having done all that he could to prevent the war, he threw himself heart and soul into the winning of it. Although seventy years old at the time of the signing of the Declaration of Independence, the following winter he went to France on the mission which was so vital to American success.

At the most aristocratic court in the world, this simply dressed, plain spoken democrat became the center of attraction. Nobles, scientists, great ladies, and courtiers vied with each other in doing him honor. His portrait was found all over France. His plain manner of dressing set a new fashion for people who, up to this time, had set the fashions for the world. He stood for a new kind of diplomat, the American who, scorning the tricks of Europe, won his case by the righteousness of the cause he represented and his own straight-forward, plain dealing. In the final negotiations of the treaty of peace with Great Britain, his common sense was invaluable. A great deal of what America won is due to him.

Seventy-nine years old when he returned home, he nevertheless was compelled to take the governorship of Pennsylvania. Two years later he was one of the leaders in the convention which wrote our Constitution.

In all of his eighty-four years, he was the busiest of men. Always working, always planning for the good of his city, his state, and his nation, his life is a model for Americans. It is not too much to say that in him America can boast one of the rarest combinations in history,—a great man who was also as good as he was great.

SAYINGS FROM "POOR RICHARD'S ALMANAC"

Fond Pride of Dress is sure a very Curse;
E'er Fancy you consult, consult your Purse.

Great Estates may venture more,
But little Boats should keep near Shore.

For Age and Want, save while you may;
No morning Sun lasts a whole Day.

He that by the Plough would thrive,
Himself must either hold or drive.

Buy what thou hast no need of, and ere long thou shalt sell thy Necessaries.

Pride breakfasted with Plenty, dined with Poverty, and supped with Infamy.

If you would have a faithful Servant, and one that you like, serve yourself.

Beware of little Expenses; a small Leak will sink a great Ship.

The Eye of a Master will do more Work than both his Hands.

If you would be wealthy, think of Saving as well as Getting.

If you would have your business done, go; if not, send.

Keep thy Shop and thy Shop will keep thee.

NATHANAEL GREENE—Born 1742—Died 1786

Sleep, soldiers! still in honored rest,
Your truth and valor wearing;
The bravest are the tenderest—
The loving are the daring.
—TAYLOR'S "A Song of the Camp."

THE principle for which the Americans were fighting was such an important one that even a Quaker who hated war would often turn soldier. Nathanael Greene was born and brought up in Rhode Island, where his father and grandfather had led the quiet life of the Friends. Perhaps the very air of freedom that Nathanael breathed in that colony, founded by liberty-loving Roger Williams, made him more ready to fight for the independence of America.

The young Quaker grew up a strong boy, industrious, self-reliant, fond of athletics, and able to surpass most of his playmates in outdoor sports. He loved books, also, and urged his father to provide better teachers for him than were to be found in the little Quaker community of Warwick.

He worked in his father's fields, the mill, and blacksmith shop. He read, studied, and played whenever he could.

Greene was always kind and gentle, but he was also firm in his own convictions. When eighteen years old, he visited New York at a time when many people had the smallpox. He insisted upon being vaccinated, though vaccination was then forbidden by law in Rhode Island and Massachusetts, and the prejudice against it was very strong. Young Greene's friends were astonished, but he was willing to think for himself and to take the consequences. Not long afterward his father became involved in a lawsuit, so the youth promptly set himself to the study of law,—another instance of his eagerness to prepare for any emergency.

It is not surprising, therefore, that when the war clouds began to gather Nathanael should have turned his attention to military matters. From the best books he obtained his knowledge of war.

A bitter disappointment threatened him at the beginning of his career. When his friends and neighbors formed a company for military drill, a slight limp in his walk was at first thought to unfit him for service. It would have been a sad mistake if he had been left out, for no other of the "Kentish Guards," as the company called itself, ever became so famous a soldier as Nathanael Greene.

Greene was only a private when he entered the ranks, but he began to work at once for his company. He drove to Boston, purchased a musket, and hid it under straw in the bottom of the wagon, that the Tories might not see it. Also, he succeeded in bringing back, as drillmaster for the "Guards," a trained English soldier who had come over to the American side.

Greene quickly rose from the ranks. When news of the battle of Bunker Hill reached Rhode Island, three regiments were quickly raised to march to the scene of trouble. Nathanael Greene was chosen brigadier general of this little band. He led his troops to Boston, and when Washington arrived at Cambridge, Greene was selected as the officer to welcome the new commander-in-chief.

The young Quaker was placed in charge of a brigade at Dorchester Heights, and had the pleasure of seeing the English march out of Boston. General Washington soon discovered that Greene was a valuable man and made him major general in the regular army, where he did good service in New York and New Jersey.

The British, defeated in both of these states in 1776 and 1777, turned their attention to the South. They had captured Savannah and Augusta, and restored the royal governor in place of the one that the colonists had chosen. In addition to this, Sir Henry Clinton had brought his redcoats down from New York, and had driven the American army out of Charleston.

As they now held possession of Georgia and South Carolina, it was an easy matter for the English to get by water all the supplies of food and ammunition that they needed. They were thus saved the trouble of carrying them over land.

This condition of things in the South caused Washington great anxiety, and he desired to send General Greene to take command of the southern forces. But Gates, who had tried to steal Schuyler's victory at Saratoga, was still influential with Congress, which forced Washington to send Gates, instead of Greene. This was in the winter of 1780.

The country paid dearly for this interference with Washington's plans. Gates mismanaged everything that he undertook. In the battle of Camden, in what was perhaps the worst American defeat of the war, Gates's troops were almost entirely destroyed. He himself acknowledged that he was left with "only the shadow of an army."

Something must be done, and Washington now hurried Greene to the scene of disaster. In the meantime, all over the mountainous country of the Carolinas, men formed themselves into little bands to defend their homes against the raids of the British soldiers. Parties of redcoats roamed over the hills, plundered and burned houses, and murdered the inhabitants.

General Francis Marion, the "Swamp Fox," came to be looked upon as the leader of these mountaineers. He knew every foot of the country, was fearless and untiring. He and his comrades were poorly clad, and were often without blankets to sleep in. They frequently had little to eat, but they never complained.

While the main English army under Cornwallis was resting after its defeat of Gates, Major Ferguson was sent out with twelve hundred men, under orders to "scour the country for provisions and frighten the inhabitants into coming over to the Tory side." He was then to join Cornwallis in North Carolina.

But this mission was not so easy to accomplish as Cornwallis had expected. News soon reached Ferguson that bands of hardy mountaineers were on his trail. Thick and fast they gathered round him, clad in homespun garments and armed with long rifles and hunting knives.

It was not long before Ferguson and his soldiers were fleeing before these daring backwoodsmen. On a steep hill, known as Kings Mountain, the British intrenched themselves. The sides of the mountain were covered with forest trees and gigantic boulders. But nothing could daunt the Americans in pursuit. They separated into three divisions which climbed the mountain at the same time, each from a different direction. Attacked on all sides, Ferguson's men were soon beaten. He himself rode boldly among his troops, trying in

Painted by Alonzo Chappel **WOMAN'S PATRIOTISM—MRS. STEELE AND GENERAL GREENE**
"Take it, you will need it and I can do without the money."

vain to rally his terrified soldiers. At last he was shot from his white horse, and the animal galloped, riderless, down the steep hillside. The English hoisted the white flag of surrender.

The winter of 1780 had been one of terrible suffering to the American troops—perhaps the hardest of the seven long years of war,—but the victory of Kings Mountain gave them fresh courage. The soldiers were thoroughly disheartened. They lacked sufficient food and clothing, and many were ill. After his defeat at Camden, Gates had been unable to control his men.

Such was the wretched condition of the southern forces when General Greene took command. Out of Gates's entire army there were left only about two thousand men, and less than half that number were able to fight. There was no money and only a few days' provisions. Encamped not far away, lay an army of over three thousand well-fed, well-clothed, victorious British troops.

You can readily see how much work there was for Nathanael Greene to do. The slight limp that so nearly kept him out of the ranks was lost sight of now. Cool judgment, kindness, patience, energy—these were the qualities that counted in this crisis.

He set to work with a will, and soon won the respect and affection of the troops. He contrived to get better food for them and to make every one more comfortable. Gradually he brought back the old spirit of self-reliance and hope.

No one knew better than the commander in chief how hard a problem Greene had before him, and able men were sent to his aid—Daniel Morgan, the "sharpshooter," William Washington, and Henry Lee, who was known as "Light-horse Harry."

At Cowpens, in January, 1781, a division of Greene's army under Morgan met the English troops under the famous General Tarleton. With a much smaller army Morgan won the day. At last our soldiers in the South had reason to take courage. At Spartanburg, in South Carolina, a large town seven miles from Cowpens, is a tall monument and on its top a bronze figure. The inscription reads:—

"To the American Soldiers, who, on the Field of Cowpens, January 17, 1781, fought victoriously for the right of Self-government and Civil Liberty. The unanimous resolve of the Congress of the United States crowns this memorial column with the form and face of General Daniel Morgan, the hero of Cowpens, who, on that field, was victorious in the great cause of American independence."

Cornwallis, the head of the English army in the South, was furious when he heard of Tarleton's defeat. The "hero of Cowpens" knew perfectly well that Cornwallis would send a fresh force against him. Morgan felt that his tired men were not strong enough to win a second battle, so he lost no time in making a retreat.

At dusk his army crossed the Catawba River. Hot in pursuit, the English soldiers reached this stream a few hours later, but rather than risk crossing it in the dark they waited until morning.

A heavy rain fell during the night. The water rose rapidly, and the enemy was so delayed that Morgan was able to reach Greene's army in safety.

General Greene saw that it would not be safe for his men to attempt to fight again while they were in such a weak condition. So he began the famous retreat that ended in American victory.

This retreat was thought out with great care and skill. By the most clever planning he brought both divisions of his little army safely

together at Guilford, where he expected that fresh troops from Virginia would await him.

But these regiments had not yet arrived, so Greene continued his retreat toward them. If only he could manage to get across the river Dan and into Virginia before Cornwallis could overtake him! It was a weary march, but the hardships were patiently endured. Week after week he marched his little band from point to point—over hills and across streams that, for lack of bridges or boats, had to be forded. Nor did he dare to forget for an instant the dangerous game he was playing with Cornwallis

One night, after a long ride in a drenching rain, Greene alighted at a little inn in Salisbury. In reply to a question the weary general said, "Yes, I am hungry, tired, penniless, and alone." The landlord's wife overheard the remark. In a short time a hot supper was placed before the hungry soldier. Then, handing him two little bags of silver that she had managed to save, the good woman said, "Take these; you will want them, and I can do without them." This spirit of sacrifice on the part of the men and women of America was the only thing that made it possible to carry on the war.

At last the Dan was safely crossed. Greene had arranged many days in advance for boats to carry his men over, but when the pursuing British troops reached the shore, they could find no way of getting to the opposite bank. For two hundred miles Cornwallis had followed close on the heels of his enemies, but now he was obliged to halt.

As soon as the Americans were rested and re-enforced by the Virginia troops, Greene recrossed the river, and at Guilford Court House, on March 15, he fought a battle with Cornwallis. Though the English claimed a victory they were so worn out that they retired to Wilmington.

General Greene now began another rapid march to the South. He wrote Washington:

"I am determined to carry the war into South Carolina. The enemy will be obliged to follow us, or give up the posts in that state."

His plan was to cut Cornwallis off from the English army at Charleston, and thus prevent his getting the much-needed food and supplies.

Greene was completely successful. One after another the British forts in South Carolina were captured. "We fight, get beat, rise, and fight again," wrote Greene. The English began to despair—the Americans to triumph.

At the battle of Eutaw Springs the Americans won a great victory. The enemy was pursued by the regiments of Generals Marion and Lee for more than twenty-five miles, and over half of the English army was lost.

Greene had done what he set out to do. He had driven the British out of North and South Carolina into Virginia. We have already learned how Cornwallis was forced to shut himself up in Yorktown, and how Washington marched his army down from New York and compelled his surrender.

Few of the world's great soldiers ever accomplished such wonderful work with so small an army as did Nathanael Greene in the southern states. Next to Washington he was the greatest general of the Revolutionary War.

This great soldier, who had endured so many hardships in war, died from the effects of sunstroke at the age of forty-four. The whole country mourned his loss, and statues stand in public parks to the memory of "the man who saved the South."

JOHN PAUL JONES—Born 1747—Died 1792

Bright flag at yonder tapering mast,
  Fling out your field of azure blue;
Let star and stripe be westward cast,
  And point as Freedom's eagle flew.
Strain home! O lithe and quivering spars!
Point home! my country's flag of stars!
—WILLIS' "Going Home."

AMERICA is today proud of her navy. When the great ships come together for review in New York harbor, or at Hampton Roads, or at the Golden Gate, thousands enjoy the magnificent sight. How bold and powerful they look, those giants of the sea, as they ride on the dancing water.

Yet, at the beginning of the Revolutionary War, America was quite at the mercy of England on the sea. The only vessels that the colonists owned were schooners and sloops that had been built for fishing or for trading along the coast.

As soon as war became certain, the Americans realized that they must have warships, and they began to build them as fast as they could. But money was scarce. The colonists could not build and equip a navy equal to England's, which was the strongest navy of all Europe.

But if large ships and heavy guns were not to be had, there was no lack of brave men who dared to put to sea in small boats resolved to capture English ships.

The average American, when he thinks of the beginnings of the United States Navy, instinctively remembers the name of John Paul Jones.

This rather remarkable character was born a Scotchman. His father, whose family name was Paul, was a gardener serving the Earl of Selkirk. John was of a restless, roaming disposition, and at the age of twelve he ran away and took to the sea. He had courage and brains and a strong character, so that it is not surprising that he became a second mate by the time he was nineteen years of age.

A great many British ships and American ships as well were engaged in the slave trade, carrying captured negroes to work in the plantations of the West Indies and the southern colonies. It so happened that John Paul's ship was a slaver. The young man himself hated the trade, and when, through the death of the captain and first mate on a certain unlucky voyage, he became captain, he stipulated that the owners should not send him back again into the slave-carrying routes.

About 1773 he came to Virginia to live, having become well acquainted with the southern colonies in his slave trading days. For some reason which is not entirely clear, he assumed the name of Jones. One historian says that this was due to his warm friendship for a family of that name, who lived in North Carolina, but this cannot be proved. He had an older brother, William, who had left Scotland during John's infancy, and he now went to live with William in Virginia where the latter had become a prosperous planter. William's death soon left John the owner of this Virginia property.

He was thus a southern planter when the War for American Independence broke out. He became deeply interested in the questions then on all lips,

JOHN PAUL JONES

"What will the British do next?" "What ought *we* to do?" He attended the Virginia legislature and heard Patrick Henry's great speeches, and he made the acquaintance of Washington and Thomas Jefferson. "If you ever need my services on the sea, I am ready," said Paul Jones to these leaders of the Revolution. His old roving nature asserted itself, and he offered his services to the Continental Congress. A great many historians have claimed that he was the first captain appointed in the American Navy, but there is good authority for assigning this honor to John Barry. Be that as it may, it is certain that Jones was in command of one of the first vessels representing the revolted colonies. It is also fairly well established that his was the first ship to fly the Betsy Ross flag, the Stars and Stripes. His ship was the first to carry to France the news of Burgoyne's surrender, that important victory which turned the scale and decided the French king to become an ally of the revolted colonies.

In command of the ship *Ranger*, Jones invaded British waters, damaged British shipping, and taking advantage of his knowledge of Scottish harbors, inflicted stinging raids upon the shipping of the west coast of Great Britain.

He obtained in France a fleet of three ships, the largest of which he named the *Bonhomme Richard* or *Goodman Richard*. This was in compliment to Benjamin Franklin, American envoy to the court of France, whose writings under the name of Poor Richard had made him famous. Putting to sea in the *Bonhomme Richard*, he sailed up the Firth of Forth, and was only prevented from attacking Leith by a strong westerly wind.

Off Flamborough Head he fell in with the frigate *Serapis*, an English warship with a competent and well-trained crew. Jones' men were a nondescript crowd, part French and part American and English adventurers, but their commander had inspired them with his own fighting spirit and indomitable pluck. The conflict began about sunset and lasted until eleven o'clock at night. It had been going on for some two hours, when the British captain, during a little lull in the battle, approached the badly battered *Bonhomme Richard*, and called out to know whether Captain Jones was ready to surrender. The reply of John Paul Jones has been quoted by almost every school history. It was typical of the man. He replied, "Sir, I have only begun to fight."

Soon it became apparent that the *Bonhomme Richard* had so many holes in her hull that she was in danger of sinking. Jones sailed up alongside the *Serapis*, and with his own hands lashed the two vessels together. Then his crew, in a fanatical drive, swarmed over upon the *Serapis*, and before long had beaten down all resistance. Jones now rapidly transferred his wounded from the deck of the sinking *Bonhomme Richard*. That vessel went down shortly afterward, leaving the survivors of the two crews aboard the captured *Serapis*. The two small vessels which were under Jones' command had been of little service. They had circled around the fighting pair, firing broadsides which occasionally damaged the *Richard* as much as they had the *Serapis*.

This exploit made Jones famous. He was lionized on his return to Paris. Louis XVI presented him with a gold-hilted sword, and gave him a coveted military decoration. He did not get into much fighting during the rest of the war, and felt chagrined that the American Congress

did not honor his services sufficiently. At length, in 1786 Congress voted him a gold medal.

Two years later his roaming, restless nature took him to Russia, where he entered the service of the Empress Catherine. He was appointed a rear-admiral in charge of ships in the Black Sea to fight against the Turks, but the Russians who had to serve under him were jealous of this high command given to a foreigner, and he was recalled.

He retired to Paris a soured and disappointed man, and there he died in 1792 at the age of forty-five. He had been only thirty-two at the time of his great victory over the *Serapis*. His body was buried in a little cemetery reserved for foreigners who were Protestants, but a year or two later the cemetery was abandoned, and buildings were erected over the graves. For a long time the site of the grave was unknown, but in 1905 General Horace Porter, the American ambassador, after persistent digging and tunneling, came across a leaden casket bearing the name of John Paul Jones. It was opened, and the body, which had been preserved in alcohol, was practically intact. There was no doubt about the man's identity. The coffin was taken to America and given a re-burial at Annapolis, as befitted one of the first heroes of the American Navy.

Authors of fiction are fond of writing of the exploits of John Paul Jones. Cooper, Dumas, Allan Cunningham and Winston Churchill are among those who have spread his fame through their novels.

JOHN BARRY — Born 1745 — Died 1803

Hearts of oak are our ships,
Gallant tars are our men.
—GARRICK'S, "Hearts of Oak."

A GREAT many people, when one speaks of the United States Navy during the Revolutionary War think exclusively of John Paul, the adventurous young Scot who after coming to this country took the name of Jones. His life was so full of color, his disposition so eccentric, his language so picturesque, that it was very easy for historians to make him into a national hero.

But there was another naval hero on the American side during the Revolution. He was the first naval officer commissioned by the second Continental Congress, the first commander of a warship flying the American flag, the officer of highest rank in the United States Navy throughout his life, and has a right to be called "the Father of the United States Navy." This man, John Barry, was born in county Wexford, Ireland, in 1745. While his exploits were not so spectacular as those of Jones, they represent a solid achievement and a career of almost unbroken success.

Barry was thirteen years old when he came to live in Philadelphia. He was always a sailor. He rose steadily through the various ranks until at twenty-five he was captain of a big merchant ship engaged in the British trade. Returning from a voyage to England in the fall of 1775 he found that Congress had authorized the purchase of two armed vessels as a small beginning of a navy. Captain

Barry immediately volunteered, and was made captain of the first vessel thus purchased, the *Lexington*. It was in April, 1776, that Barry fought the first naval battle of the war. It resulted in his capture of the British ship *Edward*.

It was during this period that Barry was in command of a small squadron of ships, on one of which, the *Alfred*, there served as first lieutenant the same John Paul Jones whose fame was later to eclipse that of his commander.

Barry's second ship, the *Effingham*, was blockaded in the port of Philadelphia, and the gallant captain, unable to stand inactivity, volunteered to serve on land. During the battles of Trenton and Princeton he fought as a member of the staff, first of General Cadwallader and then of Washington himself. In 1778, he took command of the frigate *Raleigh*. Two days after he sailed from Boston he encountered two British ships which attacked him jointly and ordered him to surrender. He finally succeeded in grounding the ship so that he himself and his crew escaped. He set the ship on fire to prevent its becoming a British prize. Half a year later again in command of a ship, he captured the British warship *Harlem*. Two years later he captured on one trip two British warships, which had attacked him jointly. On his next voyage he again fell in with two British warships, each smaller than his own vessel, and forced the two of them to surrender. Toward the end of the war he sailed on a cruise which resulted in tremendous damage to the British mercantile marine. Prizes which he captured on this trip were sold for more than three million dollars. In March, 1783, he encountered a British frigate slightly larger than his own ship, and after a sharp battle of three-quarters of an hour the British ship gave up the fight, and fled, successfully seeking refuge behind two other British ships which arrived at an opportune time. This was the last battle of the Revolutionary War.

In Washington's administration, six captains were commissioned to serve in the United States Navy. Barry's name was first on the list. Thus he was ranking officer of the United States Navy, and as such he was given the complimentary title of Commodore, although the actual rank of commodore did not exist in the United States Navy until 1862. His health soon broke down, and he went no more to sea. His death occurred in September, 1803.

In the park before Independence Hall, Philadelphia, there stands a bronze statute of her famous citizen. (See Page 166, Vol. IV). John Barry was a true patriot. He had grown to manhood in America, and he felt that this was his country. Very few men would have had the patriotism to decline an offer which was made to Barry at the outbreak of the war. Admiral Lord Howe offered him fifteen thousand guineas and the command of one of the best ships in the British Navy if he would enlist under the Union Jack. Barry's answer was characteristic of the man. "I have devoted myself to the cause of America, and not the value and command of the whole British fleet could seduce me from it."

Few personal anecdotes are told of the "Father of the United States Navy," but from all that we know about him he must have been a brave, kindly man, who loved his adopted country, and was worthy to be at the head of its naval forces in the great war which gave it its independence.

JOHN BARRY

PATRICK HENRY—Born 1736—Died 1799

Freedom! sweet Freedom! our voices resound,
Queen by God's blessing, unsceptered, uncrowned!
Freedom, sweet Freedom, our pulses repeat,
Warm with her life-blood, as long as they beat!
—HOLMES'S "Freedom, our Queen."

HAD you chanced to walk many years ago in the streets of a certain little Virginia town, you might have met a tall man, carelessly dressed, with a slouching gait and an air of indifference. Such was the general appearance of Patrick Henry. But if you had seen this same man an hour later in the court room, you would have scarcely believed your eyes. In the heat of an exciting debate Patrick Henry's lank form would straighten; his calm face become intense; his eyes flash fire; while the magic of his words held his hearers spellbound. After his first important speech, a listener said: "He made our blood run cold and our hair stand on end." Such was the power of this great orator who helped to bring about the founding of the American nation. Let us see how it happened.

When Patrick Henry was a young man, the United States as a nation did not exist. There was no central government—no President, no United States Congress. The street bands did not play the "Star-Spangled Banner," for there was no American flag. Instead, the people listened to "God save the King," for the colonists in America looked upon England as their mother country, and regarded her king as their ruler.

In the year 1765 a bill called the Stamp Act was passed by the English Parliament. Parliament makes England's laws just as Congress at Washington makes our own. By this act the colonists were obliged to put a stamp, from a half-penny to ten pounds in value, on paper used for newspapers, or for legal purposes, such as wills, deeds, and notes.

In this way King George III proposed to raise money to keep a small English army in America, for he felt that such a body of troops was needed to defend the settlers. "It is, therefore, only fair," said the king, "that the colonists should support this army."

Now in America it was believed that people should not be taxed except by their own representatives. For hundreds of years their forefathers in England had stood for this great principle. Each colony had its legislature, elected by the people, and if it chose to levy a tax, well and good. But since the colonists were allowed no voice in the English government, it seemed to them very unjust that Parliament should decide the taxes that they must pay. Prominent men, such as Benjamin Franklin, were sent to England, to protest that "taxation without representation" was tyranny. From Maine to Georgia people were aroused over the Stamp Act. Furthermore, the colonists did not want British soldiers in America. They said that they were able to protect themselves, now that the trouble with the French was ended.

The king did not pay any attention to the protest of the colonists. The leaders among the Americans, therefore, urged their friends and neighbors

PATRICK HENRY ADDRESSING THE VIRGINIA ASSEMBLY

"Caesar had his Brutus, Charles I. his Cromwell, and George III.—" said Henry. "Treason! treason!" shouted one of the members. "If this be treason make the most of it," was Henry's reply.

to refuse to pay the tax, and Patrick Henry was one of the foremost of these leaders.

Besides being one of America's greatest orators, Henry was an able lawyer, a wise statesman, and a true-hearted, lovable man. He was born at Studley, Virginia. His father was a well-educated Scotchman, and his mother an English woman with ready wit and a great fondness for music.

When Patrick was taken from the village school, at the age of ten, his father and uncle became his teachers. He studied mathematics, Latin, and Greek, and when fifteen years old was apprenticed to a country shopkeeper. A year later his father started Patrick and a brother not much older in a business for themselves.

Would you think it strange if boys of that age did not succeed? As might have been expected, the venture failed, but Patrick did not lose heart. He kept up his interest in study, and read many of his books over and over again. He liked best geography and history. He loved out-of-door pastimes, hunting, fishing, and roaming through woods and fields. His friends thought him an idle, dreamy youth, jovial and fond of frolic; but no one foresaw that he was destined to play an important part in American history.

When eighteen Patrick Henry married, and after a few years spent in trying to make a living at farming, and again at store keeping, he decided to study law. At last he had found the right work. After a few months of study, he was admitted to the bar, and his fine mind, good judgment, and remarkable gift of speech soon won him fame and fortune.

His first celebrated case was known as the "Parson's Cause." Its object was to secure larger salaries for clergymen. Nothing like Henry's eloquence in arguing this case ever had been heard in the colony. A few moments after he began to speak his listeners were leaning forward in breathless silence. The young lawyer's father was so amazed and delighted by his mastery of words that "tears of ecstasy streamed down his cheeks." When the trial came to a close, the people bore Patrick Henry on their shoulders out of the courthouse, and carried him around the yard in triumph.

But Henry's name was to become known far beyond the borders of Virginia. In 1765 he was elected to the House of Burgesses. On his twenty-ninth birthday, only a few days after taking his seat in the House, a debate arose over the stamp tax. Henry sprang to his feet, and in a ringing oration declared that no power outside the colony itself had any right to impose a tax on its people. He offered a series of resolutions condemning the Stamp Act as dangerous to liberty. Thomas Jefferson, then a young man, was present. Long years afterward he said: "That speech of Patrick Henry's excelled anything I have ever heard."

That was a lively day in the House of Burgesses. Among the members were many Tories, that is, persons so loyal to the king that they believed America should submit to whatever he thought best. You can imagine the excitement when young Patrick Henry, ending his great address, exclaimed: "Cæsar had his Brutus, Charles the First his Cromwell, and George the Third"—he was stopped by cries from the king's friends of "Treason! Treason!" But the orator was not to be frightened. When the cries ceased, he finished with great earnestness—"and George the Third may profit by their example. If this be treason, make the most of it."

In the audience were many persons who thought that Patrick Henry would surely be hanged for his bold words against the king. But to commit an act of treason was far from Henry's intention. Simple justice was all that he demanded of George III. He little dreamed that he had made a speech that would stir all the colonies and live in history.

His resolutions passed the House in the face of great opposition, and were soon printed and scattered broadcast through the colonies. They helped to strengthen the other colonies in their determination to resist the stamp tax.

When the heated session was over, Henry started quietly for home. "He passed down the street," said a neighbor, "wearing buckskin breeches, his saddlebags on his arm, leading a lean horse, and chatting with a friend who walked at his side."

George III was slow to learn that the people have rights as well as the king. He would have done well to give heed to the discontent of the colonists and to the counsel of wise English statesmen. Many members of Parliament, among them William Pitt, sympathized with the Americans, and were glad when they refused to pay the stamp tax. "I rejoice," said Pitt in a great speech in the House of Commons, "that America has resisted."

If this had been the first unjust measure imposed by England upon her colonies, they might have regarded it with less concern. We have already learned how they had to confine their trade in tobacco, rice, and other American products to English ports, to use only English ships, and to buy nothing made in any factory or mill except an English one. They were not allowed to make for themselves so much as a horseshoe nail, or to print even a copy of the New Testament. We know, also, that some of the governors who were sent out from England, men like Berkeley, for example, were more concerned with making fortunes for themselves and for the king, than in advancing the interests of the settlers in America.

So the colonists everywhere agreed that they would not pay the hated stamp tax, and to show they were in earnest, they burned boxes of stamped paper as soon as they were taken from the ships. When King George found that the colonists would not pay this tax, he tried a new method of getting money from them. Another act was passed, providing that they should pay a tax on all tea, glass, paper, and paint which they bought in England. This only aroused anew the anger of the colonists, who declared: "We will do without all these things rather than pay duty on them."

In the next chapter we shall learn more about this tax and what came of it. Boston resented it so bitterly that the king thought he would punish that town by closing the port, so that no vessel might enter or leave the harbor.

Upon hearing this, all the colonies determined to help Boston in her trouble. Some of the wisest and best men of each colony where chosen in 1774 to meet in Philadelphia at what is known in history as the First Continental Congress. They met to talk over the alarming situation and to agree upon some plan of action.

Patrick Henry and George Washington were among the delegates sent from Virginia. These were the days before railroads and steamboats, and Henry made the journey from Virginia to Philadelphia on horseback, stopping over night at Mount Vernon. In the morning he and Washington set out together for the Congress.

In the convention Patrick Henry's words made a deep impression. He urged the delegates to forget that they were from the colonies of Pennsylvania, New York, or Massachusetts, and to remember that hereafter they must all unite in a common cause. For himself he declared, "I am not a Virginian, but an American." John Adams afterward said: "No one in the Congress except Patrick Henry appeared to understand the precipice upon which we stood, and had candor and courage enough to acknowledge it."

Not long after the close of the Continental Congress, a convention was held in Virginia. Matters had gone from bad to worse, and the trouble with King George was daily growing more serious.

The convention met in St. John's Church, Richmond. This old building is now visited every year by thousands of persons eager to see the place where Patrick Henry made his wonderful speech. On that memorable day it was crowded to the doors. The greatest excitement prevailed. But when the clear voice of the orator rang out a deathlike silence fell upon all. Straightening himself to his full height, with commanding and graceful gestures, and the passion for freedom flashing from his eyes, the speaker said:

"There is no longer any room for hope of peace. If we wish to be free, we must fight! An appeal to arms and to the God of hosts is all that is left us. We shall not fight our battles alone. There is a just God who presides over the destinies of nations, and who will raise up friends to fight our battles for us. Is life so dear or peace so sweet as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? Forbid it, Almighty God! I know not what course others may take, but as for me, give me liberty or give me death."

In this famous address, parts of which are today known to every schoolboy, Patrick Henry had the courage to utter words which most of his countrymen felt, but did not dare express.

As we continue our story we shall see that war did come, with all its horror and bloodshed, and we shall learn what were the results of that great conflict.

Throughout the rest of his life Patrick Henry was a brave, loyal, and useful citizen. Just before war was declared, the royal governor of Virginia, Lord Dunmore, took all the colony's gunpowder from the public storehouse and placed it on board an English vessel. The people could stand such injustice no longer, and Patrick Henry led the first armed resistance to English rule in Virginia. He organized a volunteer force and compelled the governor to pay the colony for the gunpowder.

Henry was a delegate to the Second Continental Congress, and he was the first commander of the Virginia Revolutionary army. When the war cloud burst and the royal governor was obliged to withdraw, Henry was made the first governor of Virginia. To this post Patrick Henry was twice reëlected, but he declined many national offices—secretary of state under President Washington, chief justice of the United States, and an ambassadorship to France.

The last years of the great orator's life were spent on his large plantation, Red Hill, surrounded by his children and grandchildren; and he loved nothing better than to play and romp with little children.

Patrick Henry suffered from poor health for many years, but he was always ready to do whatever he could

for his state and country. He was beloved by every one for his sweetness of character, sympathy for the oppressed, and willingness to help all who were in trouble. "He was a good fighter," said one in speaking of him, "but never a good hater." People sometimes wronged him because they were jealous of his fame and power, but his heart was too kind to harbor bitterness even toward these.

The terrible war between England and her American colonies is known as the Revolution. Wherever its story is told, the name of Patrick Henry will live. Americans will never forget the man who dared to rise in that famous Virginia convention and declare that he would rather die than live without liberty. By this and similar speeches he helped to inspire the colonists to stand firm for freedom, and to win it.

SAMUEL ADAMS—Born 1722—Died 1803

Swift as their summons came they left
  The plow mid-furrow standing still,
  The half-ground corn grist in the mill,
The spade in earth, the ax in cleft.

They went where duty seemed to call,
  They scarcely asked the reason why;
  They only knew they could but die,
And death was not the worst of all.

—WHITTIER'S "Lexington."

"THIS is a glorious morning for America," said Samuel Adams when he heard the first guns fired at Lexington. He knew that his countrymen had at last begun the fight for independence. Samuel Adams was a quiet, peace-loving man, who hated the horrors of war, but he also hated injustice and oppression. "Unless King George's tyranny is checked," said he, "it will increase until we are little more than slaves."

Adams was among the very first to declare that England had no right to tax the American colonies. At a town meeting held in Faneuil Hall, Boston, a building which has been called the "Cradle of Liberty," he spoke out almost as boldly as had Patrick Henry in Virginia. "I denounce the act as unjust," said he, "and I urge you not to submit to it." Benjamin Franklin, who at this time was in England, advised the king and Parliament not to attempt to enforce the tax. "I warn you," said Franklin, "that my countrymen will never submit." But, as he afterward said, "I might as well have tried to stop the sun setting."

The colonists were no more willing to pay the tax on tea, glass, and paint than they had been to pay the stamp tax. "Let us all agree," said Samuel Adams, "to eat and drink and wear nothing which England sends here to sell, so long as the king demands this money from us." Throughout the colonies thousands of persons refused to use anything of British manufacture. Wives and daughters, no matter how wealthy, wore fabrics which they themselves spun and wove, while men banded together to resist the tax. They called themselves the "Sons of Liberty."

Month by month the feeling against King George grew more bitter. On

FANEUIL HALL, "CRADLE OF LIBERTY," BOSTON

the day when the new tax went into effect business was suspended, bells were tolled, and flags raised at half-mast. Urged by Adams, the Massachusetts Assembly sent to the other colonies a letter asking them to resist the English agents who tried to collect the money.

But England seemed bent on doing everything in her power to annoy the Americans. She sent troops to New York and to Boston, with orders that they should be supported at the public expense. "In this way," said the king, "I will punish these obstinate people."

Two regiments landed at Long Wharf, Boston, and marched to the common, where they paraded with much pomp. The citizens were very indignant, and, as might have been expected, trouble came before long. Workmen and idlers constantly passing the places where the troops were quartered, managed to bring on disputes and quarrels, and as time wore on people of all classes became more and more angry at the presence of the soldiers. But the royal governor felt himself much safer with English soldiers in the town, and would not withdraw them.

One day in March, 1770, after the soldiers had been quartered in Boston about a year and a half, a mob of excited people attacked a body of troops with stones, sticks, and pieces of ice, and dared the "lobster backs" to fire. The red-coat British soldiers accepted the challenge. They discharged their muskets into the crowd, and several persons were killed or wounded.

On the morning following this massacre the people of Boston rose in their might. With one voice they declared that England had no right to send armed troops into a peaceful city, and they demanded that these hated regiments be removed from the town. After much discussion Governor Hutchinson agreed to send one regiment away.

But this did not satisfy the colonists. A committee of fifteen men, led by Samuel Adams, called a town meeting in the Old South Meeting House, as Faneuil Hall was too small to hold all those who were eager to attend. The people of Boston held Adams in great respect, and when he earnestly insisted that "both regiments or none" should be removed, the crowd took up the cry. "Both regiments or none! Both regiments or none!" shouted thousands of voices in the building and in the streets. At length the governor was forced to yield, and promised to send all the soldiers to an island in the harbor. These troops were always jokingly called "the Sam Adams regiments."

Let us now look a little more closely at Samuel Adams himself. He had a fine face, clear, steel-blue eyes, was of medium height, and possessed pleasing manners. He was born in a fine old mansion in Boston, and was educated in the local schools and at Harvard. His father, who was a man of influence in the town, had at one time been wealthy, but had lost his money in an unfortunate banking venture. Forced to enter business again, he became the owner of a malt house, with Samuel for his partner, and after the father's death the young man carried on the business. He was nicknamed "Sammy the malster."

Samuel Adams was nearly thirty years old before he began to take an active interest in public affairs. He had passed his fortieth year before his career as a great statesman began. At this age his hair turned gray, and he began to suffer from a

peculiar nervous trembling of the head and hands.

Notwithstanding this outward appearance of age, a youthful fire burned in his heart. In his fortieth year he gave up all personal business, and until he was over eighty devoted his life to his country. When not attending public meetings or the duties of his offices, he was busy writing until long past midnight. Seeing a bright light in his window when they were ready for bed, his neighbors would say, "Sam Adams is still at work writing against the Tories." Brave Mrs. Adams shared her husband's patriotism. While he gave his time to the cause of American independence, she cheerfully toiled with her needle to obtain food for the children.

Of the long struggle between America and England before war was finally declared, it has been said that in the North: "Boston led the thirteen colonies, and Sam Adams led Boston." It is certainly doubtful whether the courage of the colonists would have held out if Samuel Adams had not worked night and day, always cheerfully, always hopefully, urging his countrymen to stand firm for liberty.

To return to the exciting events in Boston; nothing after the withdrawal of the troops so aroused the public as the "Boston Tea Party." In those days the men and women of Massachusetts were quite as fond of good tea as they are now; but you remember that tea was one of the articles England had taxed, and the colonists had pledged themselves to do without it. Accordingly, when a vessel bearing chests of tea came up to a Boston wharf, the inhabitants declared that it should not be unloaded. Notices were posted, inviting the citizens to meet under the Liberty Tree, to take such action as would compel the shippers to carry their goods back across the water. At this moment news arrived that three more tea ships were on the way.

"This tea," said Adams, "is more to be dreaded than plague or pestilence." Another meeting was called, and seven thousand people filled the Old South Meeting House and overflowed into the street. They sent for one of the shippers and put to him the question: "Will you take your tea back to England?" His reply was: "The governor will not permit me to do so at present." "Then," said Samuel Adams, "this meeting can do nothing more to save the country."

It had been previously arranged that this remark of Adams should be a signal for action. Men rose from their seats, and followed a few disguised as Indians to Griffin's Wharf, where in the pale moonlight the tea ship rode at anchor. "If the tea cannot go back to England, it shall not be landed," cried the crowd. Leaping aboard the vessel, the men in Indian dress hurled three hundred and forty-two chests of tea into the harbor. For many a long month afterward Boston housewives steeped catnip and pennyroyal, and with patriotic zeal tried to enjoy this new drink.

The news of the Boston Tea Party quickly spread over the country. Horsemen galloped in every direction to tell the story, and throughout the colonies there was great rejoicing. The citizens of Massachusetts now formed a Provincial Congress and chose John Hancock as president.

In the same year, 1774, the First Continental Congress met in Philadelphia, and here, too, Samuel Adams became an imposing and powerful figure. He appeared in a new suit of clothes, new wig, new silk stock-

ings and shoes—all provided by admiring friends. None of the ardent Americans who met in that famous Congress in the Quaker City worked harder for the union of the colonies against their oppressor than did stout-hearted Samuel Adams.

"I should advise persisting in our struggle for liberty," said he, "though it were revealed from heaven that nine hundred and ninety-nine were to perish, and only one of a thousand to survive and retain his liberty. One such free man must possess more virtue and enjoy more happiness than a thousand slaves."

While this Congress was in session Massachusetts enrolled an army of twelve thousand soldiers in order that she might be prepared if England should resort to arms. They were called "minutemen," for they held themselves ready to fight at a moment's notice.

Before the convening of the Second Continental Congress in Philadelphia in 1775, an event of tremendous importance happened in America. The British had fired the first shot in the war of the Revolution, the war that was to free America from English rule.

General Gage, the British military commander, had sent regiments out beyond Boston. He had heard that the "Yankees" had stored a quantity of ammunition at Concord, and he resolved to seize it. So on the night of April 18, 1775, eight hundred British troops set out for Concord. They had orders to stop at Lexington and arrest John Hancock and Samuel Adams, for it was known that they were in Lexington that night, ready to start the next day for the Congress at Philadelphia. The king knew just how important a part these men were playing in American resistance, and he ordered General Gage to send them to England to be tried for treason.

Now the Americans had been quietly watching the British and knew exactly what they were intending to do. It had been agreed that as soon as the English troops started toward Concord, a lantern would be hung in the belfry of the Old North Church in Boston. As soon as this signal flashed, horsemen dashed out of the town to spread the news that the English were coming. William Dawes sped through Roxbury and Watertown, and Paul Revere rode through the towns north and west of Boston.

As Revere spurred his tired steed into Lexington, the watchman who guarded the house in which Adams and Hancock were sleeping met the daring horseman with the caution, "The family does not wish to be disturbed by any noise." "Noise!" shouted the excited Paul Revere. "Why, man, the English are coming!"

He was none too soon. Clearly the sound of marching infantry was heard on the still night air. In haste Captain Parker assembled his minutemen on the village green. "Stand your ground," was his command. "Don't fire unless fired upon. But if they mean to have a war, let it begin here."

It was almost daybreak when the redcoats, under Major Pitcairn, marched into the village and saw the Americans drawn up on the common. "Disperse, ye villains!" shouted Pitcairn. The colonists did not move. "Fire!" he commanded, and seven American patriots fell dead. The British had been the first to fire.

Adams and Hancock were by this time making their way in safety across the meadows toward Woburn, and forty-eight hours later they were on the road to Philadelphia.

After their deadly work at Lexington the British soldiers marched on, destroying whatever military stores they could find. But when the call "To arms!" came, with the tragic news of Lexington, the minutemen proved their faithfulness. Leaving plows in furrows, they rushed home for shotguns, powderhorns, and bullets which had been made from pewter spoons and dishes melted by their wives. Jumping on their horses, in many instances without stopping to put on coats, they rode from far and near toward the scene of action. Across the bridge at Concord gathered these patriot farmers, calm and resolute, ready to give their lives for the cause of liberty, and there they met the redcoats in the first battle of the Revolution, in which several men on both sides were killed.

"By the rude bridge that arched the flood,
Their flag to the April's breeze unfurled,
Here once the embattled farmers stood
And fired the shot heard round the world."

The British started to march back to Boston, but the farmers were now thoroughly aroused. They fired from behind trees, fences, and buildings, and nearly three hundred redcoats had fallen before the Charlestown quarters were reached.

On the 17th of June of this memorable year the famous battle of Bunker Hill was fought. Bunker Hill and Breed's Hill were heights of Charlestown, with a commanding view of Boston. General Gage thought that he would seize and hold the heights for the British.

When the Americans heard of this, fifteen hundred men under Colonel Prescott advanced up Breed's Hill after dark, and spent the whole night in building an embankment for protection. Imagine the astonishment of Gage when the sun rose, and he saw Colonel Prescott in command of the summit. The English general bit his lip in disappointment. "Is he a fighter?" he asked some one who stood near. "He will fight as long as there is a drop of blood left in his body," was the reply.

The heat of the day was intense, but an army of three thousand British troops, under General Howe, started at noon to climb the hill. As they neared the top, they were met with a terrific fire from the American guns. Exhausted, the English fell back, but they soon rallied and made a second attack, only to be driven back a second time with fearful loss.

"Will the British give it up?" "Can our men hold out?" These were questions burning on the lips of thousands who, from the roofs and steeples of Boston, watched the terrible battle.

By the time the English had rallied for their third assault, the Americans were firing their last rounds of ammunition. In any event the colonists who had toiled all night with shovels could not have gone on fighting for many more hours against fresh arrivals of British troops. Colonel Prescott saw that the moment had come to order a retreat, but their resistance had been so remarkable that the battle could scarcely be called a victory for the enemy. England's trained military men were astounded to find how well the American farmers could fight.

The brave stand of these Massachusetts men strengthened all the colonies in their determination to take up arms for liberty. They now gave up hope of bringing King George to reason by peaceful means, and felt that there was only one thing left—to fight for freedom.

HANCOCK-CLARKE HOUSE, LEXINGTON, MASS.
Built in 1698 and enlarged in 1734. Here Samuel Adams and John Hancock were sleeping when aroused by Paul Revere, April 19, 1775.

To the close of his long life Samuel Adams gave his time and strength to his country. King George had failed to capture him and he sent General Gage to offer Adams valuable gifts and a powerful position if he would desert the colonies and come over to England's side.

Can you not imagine the anger of Samuel Adams when this message was received? Gage knew better than to deliver it in person, so he sent a messenger. The indignation of the patriot knew no bounds. "Tell Governor Gage," he angrily replied, "that it is the advice of Samuel Adams to him that he no longer insult the feelings of an exasperated people. No personal consideration shall ever induce me to abandon the righteous cause of my country."

He was one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. When Adams signed this paper, it was perhaps the proudest moment of his life. By his side sat his friend, John Hancock, who dashed down his name in huge letters, "In order," said he, "that George the Third may read it without spectacles."

When Samuel Adams died he was buried in the old Granary burying ground in Boston. Every one mourned his loss. His simple ways and threadbare clothes had endeared him to the poor, who regarded him as their friend and were not afraid to come to him at all times for help. The wealthy and educated appreciated him still more, for they knew the sacrifices he had made, and what his busy brain and willing pen had done to help the cause for which they were all fighting.

PHILIP SCHUYLER—Born 1733—Died 1804

God bless the Flag and its loyal defenders,
While its broad folds o'er the battlefield wave,
Till the dim star-wreath rekindle its splendors,
Washed from its stains in the blood of the brave!
—HOLMES'S "God save the Flag."

WASHINGTON had many brave generals, but none was more noble or more unselfish in his devotion to his country than Philip Schuyler.

Schuyler's Dutch ancestors had come from Amsterdam and settled in Albany, where Philip was born. The boy received a good education and became a rich and influential citizen. When the war with England began he owned much valuable property,—hundreds of acres of woodland near Albany, and boats on which the timber was carried down the Hudson River to New York. He married a descendant of Killian Van Rensselaer, one of the first patroons who took up a grant of land in the Hudson valley.

Philip Schuyler had many noble qualities, and chief among them was patriotism. He fought bravely in the French and Indian War. When he was sent as one of New York's delegates to the Continental Congress, he and Washington became acquainted and were soon firm friends.

After the American army had defeated the British at Trenton and Princeton, there was some doubt in Washington's mind as to what the next move of the enemy would be. At length it became clear.

"Nothing," thought the British "can be so harmful to the Yankees as for us to get possession of the Hudson River. By thus controlling New York state we can keep the New England soldiers from joining Washington's army." Accordingly, the English general, Burgoyne, received orders in the summer of 1777 to march his men down from Canada by way of Lake Champlain, take Fort Ticonderoga, and proceed to Albany. A second army, under Colonel St. Leger, was ordered to start from Montreal, ascend the St. Lawrence to Lake Ontario, capture Fort Stanwix on the Mohawk River, and join Burgoyne at Albany; while Howe was to bring up a third army from New Jersey.

If this plan had succeeded, General Washington would have been indeed in a bad plight. It failed because of the foresight, zeal, and heroism of the American commanders, and particularly because of the skilful manner in which Philip Schuyler controlled the army in New York.

General Howe, who had had desperate fighting against Washington in New Jersey, began to have considerable respect for the "farmer" soldiers but Burgoyne, though brave, was boastful. He declared, "If the king will give me ten thousand men, I will promenade through America."

King George quickly granted this request. Ten thousand men were furnished,—some English, many Hessians or Germans, whom the English hired to fight for them, and Indians who had been won to the British side. Popular feeling against the war was so strong in England that there was difficulty in getting enough native-born soldiers to send to America, so Germans were paid to serve in the British army.

Burgoyne's "promenade" started out very well. General Schuyler had been strengthening the northern de-

fenses, and no one dreamed that Fort Ticonderoga would not withstand British attack. But it chanced that near the fort there was a high, steep hill; and Burgoyne saw that if he could get men and cannon up that hill, he could fire down into the fort, and the Americans would be helpless.

Under cover of the night, therefore, he made this hard march, and the next morning General St. Clair was astonished to find his men at the mercy of the English guns. He was obliged to retreat, and hastily abandoning the fort, marched southward. The British followed close on his heels, and it was only by leaving baggage and ammunition behind him that St. Clair managed to escape to Fort Edward and join General Schuyler.

Burgoyne was so jubilant over this victory that he triumphantly sent the news to England. When the king received it, he rushed into the queen's apartment and cried, "I have beat them! I have beat all the Americans!"

But, unfortunately for the king, *all* the Americans were not at Ticonderoga. To be sure, Burgoyne had not far to march to reach Albany, where he expected to join the other two divisions of the English army, and give the king still further cause for rejoicing. But General Schuyler resolved to make this march the hardest of Burgoyne's life.

Only one road led through the forest, and the Americans fell to work with a will to make it impassable. Schuyler had only a few thousand soldiers at Fort Edward; but provided with axes spades, and torches, they worked night and day. They chopped down hundreds of trees so that they fell directly across the road. Fifty bridges were destroyed. Streams were dammed so that the water overflowed the banks, and made the ground so swampy that the English could not cross with heavy cannon. For miles on either side of the road all cattle and provisions of every kind were put out of reach of the British; for Burgoyne was depending upon the resources of the country to feed his army as he marched.

The Americans worked in desperation, goaded on not alone by the defeat of Fort Ticonderoga, but by the horrible outrages committed by the Indians with the English army. Jenny McCrea, the beautiful daughter of a clergyman, had recently been seized and cruelly murdered by a party of Indians, and the country rang with the news of this and other such hideous deeds.

Schuyler's men had indeed made a hard "promenade" for Burgoyne. It took him twenty days to cover twenty-four miles. Footsore, hungry, and exhausted, the British at last reached Fort Edward. And what did they find? Not an American in the fort, not a pound of powder or shot! The wary Schuyler had by this time crossed the Hudson and pitched his tents at Saratoga. Every day that he could delay British attack meant just so much gain, for Washington was hurrying troops to his aid.

Burgoyne was now sadly in need of ammunition. He therefore chose about a thousand of his men, mostly Hessians and Indians, and sent them to Bennington, where he had heard the Yankees had a large supply of military stores. But Colonel John Stark and his stalwart "Green Mountain Boys" were carefully guarding Bennington. Stark had fought in the French and Indian War, at Bunker Hill, Trenton, and Princeton. He was considered one of the best officers in the American army.

When news came that the English were marching toward Bennington, men and boys armed themselves with

whatever weapons they could find and started for Stark's camp. They carried with them pewter spoons, plates, and porringers to be melted into bullets. On the morning before the fight it is said that General Stark mounted a rail fence and thus addressed his soldiers: "My men, we are about to fight the Hessians and Indians. The English pay the Hessians seven pounds tenpence a man. If you are worth more, prove it!"

For two hours the battle raged. The Americans had one rusty old cannon which they had dragged for miles on the wheels of a cart. When the cannon balls gave out, they loaded it with stones. So furious was the attack that the Indians in terror fled screaming to the woods. The Hessians were either shot down or taken prisoners. Less than one hundred men returned of the thousand Burgoyne had sent out. "The woods are full of Yankees! The woods are full of Yankees!" shouted the few half-crazed Indians who finally made their way back to the British camp.

This was not the only bitter disappointment in store for Burgoyne. St. Leger's wing of the army had advanced from Oswego through the wilderness as far as Oriskany, when it was met by American troops under brave old General Herkimer on their way to Fort Stanwix. The opposing forces fought in deadly battle. General Herkimer was shot and mortally wounded; but he refused to leave the field, or even to rest. He ordered the saddle to be taken from his dead horse and placed at the foot of a tree. Then he sat down, coolly lighted his pipe, and continued to direct and cheer his men until the British were driven back in confusion.

This happened in August, 1777, the very year in which Congress chose the stars and stripes for our country's flag. After the battle of Oriskany the new national banner of red, white, and blue was flung to the breeze for the first time, over Fort Stanwix. It had been made of such materials as were at hand,—a red flannel skirt which a soldier's wife gladly gave, a white shirt, and an old blue jacket. Nevertheless, it proudly waved, and the sight angered St. Leger as a red rag angers a bull. He vowed that he would carry the flag away with him or die in the attempt.

But General Schuyler was just as determined that the precious emblem should not leave the fort. When news of the fight at Oriskany reached him at his camp, he called his officers and asked who would volunteer to march with a relief force to Fort Stanwix. "I will," quickly replied Benedict Arnold. "General Washington sent me here to make myself of use. I will go." The drum beat its call for volunteers, and more than a thousand men responded. When Arnold's regiment was within twenty miles of Fort Stanwix, some Tory spies were captured, among them a half-witted fellow named Yan Yost. Then Arnold determined to make use of a trick in the hope of frightening St. Leger's army. First he condemned Yan Yost to death for treason; and when the boy's mother and brother pleaded for his life, Arnold promised to release him on certain conditions. Yan was to take off his coat and have it shot full of bullet holes; then he was to run to St. Leger's camp and tell the English that thousands of American soldiers were approaching. "If you will do that," said Arnold, "and then come back here, you and your mother and brother may go free."

The trick worked perfectly. When St. Leger saw the breathless boy and heard his story, he asked how many Americans were marching toward him.

The lad pointed to the countless leaves of the trees overhead, and St. Leger waited no longer to capture the American flag. Believing that Schuyler's whole army was near, he fled toward Canada in such haste that tents, powder, and cannon fell into Arnold's hands.

Burgoyne was now in a very dangerous position. Howe was to have joined him from New Jersey, but he had been prevented by General Washington. St. Leger, who had marched his men down from Canada to crush the Americans, was now swiftly marching them back again. On all sides American regiments were cutting off Burgoyne's retreat to Canada. His men were in sore need of provisions. He must push on toward Albany with all speed.

Sad to say, General Schuyler was not to command the colonial forces long. In those dark days when most Americans thought only of saving their country, there were still a few who cared but for themselves and their own glory. General Gates was one of these. He was jealous of Washington's confidence in Schuyler, and he managed to have Congress appoint himself to Schuyler's place. But Philip Schuyler was one of those noble souls who would not allow a personal injury to stand in the way of his duty to his countrymen. Though forced to give up his command, he kept at work. Arnold, too, came in for a share of Gates's jealousy, and was compelled to leave his regiment.

Burgoyne marched as rapidly as possible toward Albany, and met the American army at Bemis Heights. A battle was fought that lasted several hours, but neither side could claim victory. For more than a fortnight afterward, the two armies lay at Stillwater watching each other, like two tigers ready to spring.

On the morning of October 17, 1777, began the battle of Saratoga, the first decisive victory of the war. Arnold stood impatiently watching his gallant troops until he could bear his inactivity no longer. Jumping on his horse, he galloped into the thick of the fight. The sight of their old commander cheered his comrades to greater efforts. Fiercely the battle raged, and at last the English were driven from the field. Brave General Morgan shared with Arnold the glory of this American victory. Gates was not even on the field.

A bullet entered Arnold's leg, and his horse was killed under him. It would have been better had he died in that moment of triumph. Afterward when he had turned traitor, he captured an American officer. "What would happen to me if I were caught?" asked the unhappy Arnold. Quickly the officer replied: "Your lame leg, wounded at Saratoga, would be cut off and buried with the honors of war. The rest of your body would be hanged."

Nothing but surrender was left to the proud Burgoyne. Six thousand of his men were taken prisoners, and great quantities of ammunition fell into the hands of the Americans. When news of the battle of Saratoga was carried across the water, many people in Great Britain were glad to hear of Burgoyne's defeat, for they thought the king had done wrong to bring on war with his colonies. William Pitt, always America's true friend, rose in Parliament and said: "My lords, *you cannot conquer America.* And if I were an American, while a foreign troop was landed in my country, I would never lay down my arms — never — never — never!" Commissioners were sent to America to try to make peace, but England was not yet willing to give the colonists their independence.

The welcome news of Saratoga reached the American soldiers in that hard winter at Valley Forge. And when France heard of it, she said: "Benjamin Franklin is right. These raw American soldiers can defeat English regulars. They deserve our help."

Under the stars and stripes that had so lately kindled St. Leger's indignation, the Americans had marched to victory. Everybody knew that this triumph belonged not to Gates but to Schuyler, Morgan, and Arnold. In this moment of general rejoicing Schuyler did not forget the suffering of the English. He understood the hardships they had passed through, and how much they needed food and care. He saw to it that they were treated with every kindness that a humane victor can bestow upon unhappy prisoners.

After the battle of Saratoga Schuyler retired from active military life; but in other ways he continued to serve his country as long as it had need of him. For years he was a member of Congress, and was often summoned from his duties there to consult with Washington in regard to plans for carrying on the war. In no one of his counselors did the commander in chief feel more confidence than in Schuyler. The great Daniel Webster once declared that Philip Schuyler stood not far below Washington in the service he rendered his country. After the war was over and Washington was serving as President, Schuyler became of further aid. He was made surveyor general and took an active part in settling disputes with the Indians.

Schuyler was one of the first to propose building a canal in New York state that should connect the waters of the Great Lakes with the Hudson River. He subscribed generously from his large fortune for the support of Union College at Schenectady. His fine old mansion at Albany was celebrated for its hospitality. Franklin and Lafayette were among the many distinguished men who were entertained within its walls.

General Schuyler died in his seventy-second year, and was buried in the Albany Rural Cemetery with military honors. His grave is marked with a tall granite column. All honor to the memory of the man who, while smarting under the sting of unjust treatment, was great enough to say, "My country before everything."

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General Schuyler's unselfish patriotism was nobly shown in the direction which he gave to Mrs. Schuyler to set fire, with her own hand, to his large and valuable fields of wheat, as well as to request his tenants and others to do the same, rather than suffer the enemy to reap them. The artist, in the accompanying drawing, has graphically depicted Mrs. Schuyler's spirit and energy.

Painted by E. Leutze

MRS. SCHUYLER FIRED HER WHEAT FIELDS ON THE APPROACH OF THE BRITISH

JAMES MADISON—Born 1751—Died 1836

What constitutes a state?

. . . . . .

Men who their duties know,
But know their rights, and knowing dare maintain.
—Sir William Jones, "Ode in Imitation of Alcoeus."

ON the tombstone of Thomas Jefferson, there is no mention of the fact that he was Secretary of State, Vice President, or President of the United States. He directed that the honors which had come to him by the vote of others should pass unmentioned. On the other hand he directed that he should be remembered as the author of the Declaration of Independence, and of the Statute of Virginia providing for religious liberty, and for his creation of the University of Virginia.

In like fashion, when one speaks of James Madison, he commonly remembers not the Secretary of State and President of the United States, but the man who shares with Hamilton the honor of being the father of our Constitution, and the author, with Hamilton and Jay, of those famous essays published under the name of "The Federalist."

James Madison, born on March 16, 1751, was a frail and sickly lad. After his graduation from Princeton University in the early seventies, he would have liked to enlist in the Continental Army, but the selective process, weeding out the infirm and weakly, barred him, as it barred thousands of others during the World War of 1917. In a letter to a friend, written about this time, he laments the fact that he is "too dull and infirm to look for any extraordinary things in this life," and that he could not "expect a long or healthy life." It is interesting to note that this infirm weakling lived more than sixty years after the letter had been written, dying at last at the ripe age of eighty-five.

Like many other young men of the period, he was a fiery advocate of separation from Great Britain. Barred from fighting by his physical infirmities, he took an active part in the political struggles of the time. He was only twenty-three years old, when, in 1774, he was appointed a member of the Virginia Committee of Safety, and two years later he was a delegate to the Virginia Convention. Here he was active in helping to prepare the Bill of Rights, which stamped his state as one of the leaders in the opposition to George III.

It was during this period that he first met and fell under the influence of a man some eight years his senior, who was destined in later years to influence tremendously his character, his career, and his whole life—Thomas Jefferson.

At the age of twenty-eight he was elected to the Second Continental Congress from the state of Virginia. From this time he was continuously active in the service of the nation, as a legislator, as a framer of the Constitution, as a cabinet officer, and finally as President of the United States.

From the first of his Congressional career, he was an advocate of a stronger union. The plan which was finally adopted in the formation of the Constitution was one which he had proposed some years before. This fact, together with the account of the Con-

stitutional Convention, which he so carefully wrote out, have given him the title of "The Father of the Constitution," which he shares only with Alexander Hamilton. The Constitutional Convention had forbidden anyone to take notes or make any written account of the proceedings. Nevertheless, Madison did take copious verbatim reports of what was happening, and years afterwards these were published.

It was Madison who, joined with John Jay and Hamilton, rushed to the defense of the proposed Constitution in that wonderful series of essays which later were bound in a single volume entitled "The Federalist." When the Constitution had been framed and was being submitted to the states, it was Madison who was its chief advocate before the Convention called by the state of Virginia. He had to fight the powerful opposition of Patrick Henry, the distrust and hesitation of his friend Jefferson, who at that particular time was on a diplomatic mission in France. He beat them both, and the state of Virginia, by a majority of ten, ratified the Constitution.

No sooner was the new government under way than the leading statesmen found themselves aligned in two opposing camps, known in history as the Federalist and anti-Federalist or Republican parties. More and more, Madison fell under the influence of Thomas Jefferson, and as this great man became the leader of the Republican party, Madison drifted farther and farther away from his former friends, the Federalists, and finally became identified entirely with the party of Jefferson.

As Secretary of State in the cabinet of Jefferson, Madison was permanently connected with the acts of Congress which led up to the War of 1812. Great indignation was felt in America over the acts of England and France, who, in trying to crush each other, greatly damaged the commerce of neutral nations, just as Germany, in the World War one hundred years later, did the same thing.

When it came toward the end of Jefferson's second term, there were three strong candidates for the presidency, Madison, James Monroe and the Vice President, George Clinton. Jefferson wisely advised Monroe to

JAMES MADISON

wait his turn, and did his best to favor his friend and protegé, the Secretary of State. Mrs. Madison, known in history by her nickname of "Dolly," played no small part in this choice. As Mrs. Jefferson was dead, it was Mrs. Madison who was the chief hostess whenever there were state dinners or parties given by the president or the members of the cabinet. She had the knack of making friends and holding them, and what is more,

was able to help her husband politically as well as socially.

Madison himself was a man of very high character. He had originally intended to go into the ministry, but his love for public life and politics was too strong. In an age when a great many of the statesmen were men of coarse habits, his exemplary private life was a great asset to him. He was elected president in 1808, receiving almost three times as many votes as were given to Charles C. Pinckney, the candidate of the Federalist party.

The War of 1812 hung like a cloud over Madison's whole presidency. His first term was embittered by the troubles which led up to the war. Personally he did not desire the conflict, but found himself forced into it by the jingoes who thought they saw a chance to expand the territory of the United States. There were those who were eager to seize Florida from Spain. There were others who had dreams of annexing Canada, or at least that portion of Ontario which is partially surrounded by the Great Lakes. Like McKinley in 1898, Madison found himself powerless to stem the tide of war enthusiasm. But after once being forced into the conflict, he had to carry the burden of the blame, for throughout the country the contest was known as "Mr. Madison's War."

The war was fought apparently in the interests of the shipowners of New England. Yet they were the most bitter opponents of Madison's whole policy. They denounced the war vigorously, and even talked openly of seceding from the Union.

This curious war was fought because of English Orders in Council. Yet the Orders in Council were repealed several weeks before the war broke out. The one great American victory of the war was fought in January, 1815, some two weeks after the treaty of peace had been signed. Just as the telegraph would have prevented the slaughter of two thousand English soldiers before New Orleans, so it might, and very probably would, have prevented the entire war had the country known that the obnoxious Orders in Council no longer existed at the time that we began to fight.

It is not fair to saddle the blame for this war upon the president. Great as a legislator and as an essayist and debater, he lacked certain executive qualities which have characterized only a few of our presidents.

His last two years in the presidential chair were peaceful ones. In his last appeal to the American people, he turned to his masterpiece, the Constitution of the United States, and appealed to his countrymen to hold it in pride and affection.

Great changes have taken place in the Constitution of the United States from the time when it was first framed. We must remember that it antedated the locomotive, the steamboat, and the French Revolution—that it was contemporary with George the Third, Marie Antoinette, and the flintlock musket. Yet the structure and frame remain the same. It is the rock upon which the whole American government rests. When we think of this, let us not forget that the American who had the greatest share in accomplishing the formation of our government as it is today, and in the establishment of this Constitution, was none other than James Madison.

GILBERT MOTIER DE LAFAYETTE—Born 1757—Died 1834

God lives and reigns! He built and lent
The heights for Freedom's battlement
Where floats her flag in triumph still.

Fold up the banners! Smelt the guns!
Love rules. Her gentler purpose runs.
—THOMPSON'S "The High Tide at Gettysburg."

ANY one who sacrifices personal pleasure and comfort to help those in trouble does a noble thing. This is exactly what the young Frenchman, Marquis de Lafayette, did when he came to America to help the colonists in their effort to free themselves from King George's tyranny.

Lafayette was the son of an old and honored family and heir to a large fortune. He lived a happy life, surrounded by luxury, in a chateau that nestled among the beautiful hills of France. The love of liberty and the desire to help those in need were characteristics which he early showed. When he was seven or eight years old, the farmers near his mountain home complained of a great gray wolf that broke into the sheepfold at night and killed the lambs. One day the boy was found roaming in the forest. "I am looking for that wolf," said he, "for I mean to kill it."

His father died in battle a few weeks before Lafayette was born, and his mother brought him up with great care. When he was sent to Paris to be educated, he was presented at court, but the pomp and show of life among the nobility did not attract him. He longed for the freedom of the forests, and dreamed that he would some day help to make life simpler and more independent. That dream came true.

He was only nineteen when he heard of the struggle of the American colonists with the mother country. "France ought to aid the Americans with money and firearms," said the young enthusiast, "and we men should help them fight."

Lafayette never wasted time in talking about a thing that needed to be done—he fell to work and did it. Instead of remaining at home, contenting himself with saying, "What a fine thing it would be for some of us to take a hand in that war!" he fitted out a ship at his own expense, and sailed for America to offer his services to Congress.

This had been no easy task, for Lafayette's family seriously opposed his going, all except his brave, devoted wife, who sympathized with his high purpose. When the king heard that the brilliant Marquis de Lafayette and a number of his friends were planning to go to America, he forbade their leaving France. So Lafayette was really obliged to run away from his own country. He managed to escape from French waters without being discovered, and his ship anchored off the coast of South Carolina in the spring of 1777.

Washington saw from the first that here was a young man after his own heart. The commander-in-chief was a good judge of human nature, and he recognized the sincerity, and ability of this Frenchman who was so eager to help the cause of liberty. The friendship between these two men is one of the most beautiful in history.

Lafayette was appointed a major general, and entered with enthusiasm upon his hard duties. He served without pay, and from his own fortune furnished clothing and camp outfits for many of the poor patriots. He wrote back to France concerning the division he commanded: "It is weak in point of numbers; it is almost naked, and I must make both clothes and recruits. I do not want to disappoint the confidence that the Americans have so kindly placed in me."

His first active service was at the battle of Brandywine, not many months after his arrival. General Howe and Lord Cornwallis, with eighteen thousand British troops, advanced upon Philadelphia, then the capital of the country. Washington took up his position at Chadd's Ford, on Brandywine Creek, where a desperate battle was fought. While it was at its height, Lafayette saw that the Americans were losing ground. He flung himself from his horse, and sword in hand rushed forward, cheering the soldiers on to still greater effort. A British bullet wounded him in the leg, so that he had to remount his horse, but he would not leave the front of battle. Washington's army, however, was no match in numbers for the British, and the Americans were finally driven back.

On the battlefield of Brandywine a monument has been erected by the citizens and school children of Chester County, Pennsylvania, and the inscription reads:

"ON THE RISING GROUND, A SHORT DISTANCE SOUTH OF THIS SPOT, LAFAYETTE WAS WOUNDED AT THE BATTLE OF BRANDYWINE, SEPTEMBER 11, 1777."

"The honor to have mingled my blood with that of many other American soldiers on the heights of the Brandywine," said Lafayette, "has been to me a source of pride and delight."

Not a soldier in the whole American army rejoiced more at Burgoyne's defeat at Saratoga than did Lafayette. Shortly afterward he received a letter from Paris which delighted his generous heart. He hastened to Washington, threw his arms around the surprised commander's neck, and exclaimed: "The king of France acknowledges the independence of America, and has determined upon armed interference in your behalf!" In the shouts of joy from the weary soldiers at this good news, there was plenty of cheering for Lafayette as well as for his king.

In the battle at Monmouth, New Jersey, which Washington won in spite of the greatest difficulties, the Frenchman's conduct was heroic, and called forth high praise from his commander.

But it was in the last campaign of the war, the siege that ended in the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown, that Lafayette most distinguished himself. For months he had been pressed by Cornwallis, who had been chased across North Carolina by that splendid little army under Greene. At last Cornwallis intrenched himself at Yorktown. "Now," said he, "the boy cannot escape me." But fate had decreed that Cornwallis should not escape "the boy."

Very skilfully had Lafayette aided in forcing Cornwallis into this trap, and with equal skill he held him there until Washington had time to bring his army of American and French troops down from New York. Then, with the help of the French squadron in Chesapeake Bay, Washington forced Cornwallis to surrender.

When Lafayette returned home after peace was declared, he carried with him the love and gratitude of every American. He had left France followed by the anger of his family and king, but now that he came back a

WASHINGTON AND LAFAYETTE AT MOUNT VERNON

distinguished general, a close friend of Washington, and loved by the American nation, his countrymen showered honors upon him.

Throughout the remainder of his life, Lafayette devoted himself to the cause of liberty in his native country. But he was destined to suffer much; for his high ideals of patriotism and liberty were misunderstood. He even languished for years in prison, but before his death he was once more honored at home as he deserved to be.

When he was an old man, he came again to the country for which he had so nobly given his youthful services. At the grave of Washington tears streamed down his cheeks as he recalled all that Washington's love and trust had meant to him. Greene, Marion, Morgan, and Schuyler were all dead; Lafayette was the only living major general of the Revolution. He met some of the old soldiers who fought under him, and they were overjoyed to see their commander again.

Lafayette visited all the largest American cities and was received everywhere with greetings of welcome and affection. As a token of appreciation, Congress voted him two hundred thousand dollars and a large tract of land in Florida, and when he was ready to return, ordered that a new frigate, named the *Brandywine* in his honor, should carry him to France. He died in Paris ten years later. This country will never forget its debt of gratitude to Lafayette and to his fellow-countrymen, who on land and sea aided the Americans to win the victory in the Revolutionary War.

THOMAS JEFFERSON—Born 1743—Died 1826

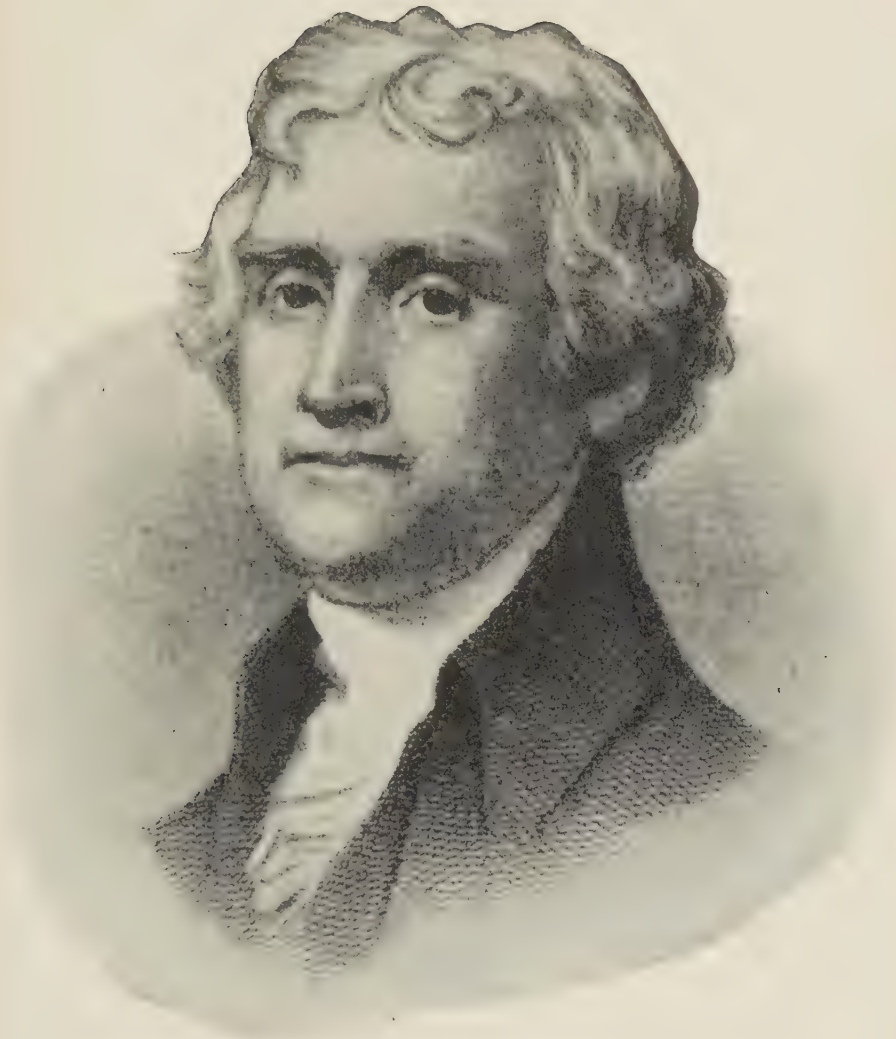
Lord of the Universe! shield us and guide us,
Trusting Thee always through shadow and sun!
Thou hast united us, who shall divide us?
Keep us, oh! keep us the many in one.
Up with our banner bright,
Sprinkled with starry light,
Spread its fair emblems from mountain to shore,
While through the sounding sky
Loud rings the Nation's cry,—
Union and Liberty! one evermore!

—HOLMES'S "Union and Liberty."

WE must never forget how much we owe to the great men who figure in the early history of America—the men who fought, planned, and acted for us, that we might enjoy the privileges our country now offers. Thomas Jefferson was one of these men. He was not so eloquent a speaker as Patrick Henry, but he was as effective with his pen as was Henry with his voice. He was called "the Pen of the Revolution."

When Congress decided that the time had come for all the colonies to unite and declare themselves free and independent of England, Jefferson was chosen to draft the famous Declaration of Independence. To have been the author of that document is fame enough for one man, but we shall find that Jefferson had other claims to greatness.

His father, a rich man, owned a large plantation at Charlottesville, Virginia, where Thomas was born. On an estate of two thousand acres the boy had plenty of outdoor life. He was tall and strong, a daring rider,



Th Jefferson

fond of hunting, swimming, and rowing. He also loved books and music, and was willing to give many hours a day to study and practice.

Mr. Jefferson died before Thomas was fifteen years old, and the youth was soon afterward sent to the College of William and Mary. Jefferson always said that he owed his success in life to his college training. He was seventeen when he entered—a healthy, freckle-faced, sandy-haired lad. He now became so interested in books that, for the first time in his life, he neglected his muscles. Often he studied fifteen hours a day, his only recreation being a run of a mile or two at twilight.

After graduation he studied law, and at the age of twenty-one became manager of his father's estate. He took a keen interest in the question of his country's independence, though he always hated war. He used to say, "The most successful war seldom pays for its losses." He was present on the two occasions when Patrick Henry made his greatest speeches. When Jefferson was an old man, he loved to recall the thrill which the orator's eloquent words kindled. Washington, Henry, and Jefferson, all members of the House of Burgesses, were warm friends.

When Jefferson was twenty-nine years old he married. He was himself at that time the owner of several thousand acres of land and many slaves. His wife brought him forty thousand acres and more than one hundred slaves. His large house stood on a high hill, and he called it Monticello, from an Italian word meaning little mountain.

Though he owned many negroes, he did not believe in slavery. He felt, as did many other good Americans, that the time must soon come when the colored people would be freed. He was always the kindest of masters, and his slaves loved him. Once when he was returning from a long visit to France, his negroes walked miles down the road to meet him waving their hats and shouting in delight. When the carriage reached Monticello, they lifted their master out and carried him into the house, some of them weeping for joy at having him home again.

Like Washington, Jefferson loved the simple life of a farmer. He was deeply interested in plants and trees, and liked to experiment with new varieties. He once said, "The greatest service to any country is to add a useful grain to its culture, especially a bread grain."

The master of Monticello had been married only a year when he was summoned to attend the Continental Congress at Philadelphia. News of the Boston Tea Party had stirred the country, and now tidings came of the firing at Concord and Lexington. Virginia began drilling regiments of soldiers, just as the New England states had trained their minutemen.

On the day that Jefferson took his seat in Congress, the exciting news of the battle of Bunker Hill reached Philadelphia. From the first he made himself a useful member. A committee of five was appointed to draw up the Declaration of Independence, and, as Jefferson had shown unusual ability as a writer, he was asked to draft the paper. Congress spent many days in discussing the Declaration which Jefferson drew up, but its form was so perfect that they had to make very few changes.

Jefferson used to say, laughingly, that hot weather and a pest of flies ended the debate of Congress upon the Declaration. The members were worn out with the nervous strain of long debates and the excitement of the danger that threatened America. Finally, on

the afternoon of July 4, 1776, when the frightful heat was aggravated by swarms of flies from a nearby stable, a final vote was taken and the Declaration at once adopted.

Printed copies of this historic paper were carried over the country by mounted horsemen. Washington read it to his soldiers. Everywhere church bells were rung, and men cheered and shouted for joy. Each Fourth of July, when we celebrate the birthday of our nation, we should remember Thomas Jefferson and the other brave men who represented the thirteen weak American colonies. They dared to say to King George III: "We will not submit to injustice. We declare ourselves free and independent."

As a member of the Virginia legislature, Jefferson did much for the people of his state. Through his efforts an old law was abolished by which all the property of a man was given to his eldest son. The new law allowed each of the children an equal share. Another law had made every one pay taxes for the support of public worship. But Jefferson believed that nobody should be obliged to support any church, and a new law was passed under which only those paid who wished to do so.

He took great interest in education, and after forty years of unceasing effort, succeeded in establishing the University of Virginia at Charlottesville. When at last the building was to be erected, he bought the bricks himself, and selected the trees to be used for timber. He personally engaged the laborers and daily superintended the work.

Jefferson succeeded Patrick Henry as governor of his state. In common with many wealthy land-owners, he suffered from the ravages of the British. One of his large plantations was laid in ruins by Cornwallis, while General Tarleton took possession of Monticello and held it for several days.

The death of Mrs. Jefferson in 1782 was a terrible blow to her husband. The great house seemed so lonely that he accepted the post of minister to France. Here he lived with his daughters for five years.

In 1789 President Washington made Jefferson secretary of state. Jefferson would have preferred to stay in Paris, but he wrote to Washington: "It is not for an individual to choose his post. You are to marshal us as may be best for the public good." He therefore returned and took up his residence at New York, then the national capital.

In 1801 Jefferson was chosen third President of the United States. "The new President was a very remarkable man. He was an accomplished scholar, reading several languages with ease. He was deeply interested in science and philosophy. He was a daring horseman, a dead shot with a rifle, and a skilful performer on the violin." He was courteous, dignified, and hospitable, simple in his tastes, disliking all ceremony and formality.

The federal government had been removed in 1800 to Washington, and Jefferson was the first President inaugurated in that city. He refused to be driven in a carriage to the Capitol on the day of his inauguration, choosing to go on horseback; and he tied his horse to the fence himself.

One of the most important things that Jefferson accomplished as President was the purchase of Louisiana by the United States. This was not the small tract laid down on the maps today under the name of Louisiana. It included all the country from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains, between Canada and Texas. It also included a narrow strip on the east side of the river near its mouth, on which the city of New Orleans was

built. This section of America, as we know, had been given by France to Spain, but Napoleon in his war with that country had forced Spain to give it back to France. Jefferson saw how important it was for America to own this land. "If the French choose to plant a strong colony at New Orleans," said he, "they can prevent our boats coming down the Mississippi and out into the ocean with their loads of cotton and rice. The possessor of New Orleans is our natural enemy."

Now it happened that Napoleon was in pressing need of money to carry on his wars; so, when President Jefferson sent James Monroe to France in 1803, with an offer to buy Louisiana, Napoleon was glad to sell. For fifteen million dollars this immense territory came into the possession of the United States and doubled its size. It is the largest piece of land ever purchased. As a matter of fact, Napoleon had two reasons for selling it—he was obliged to raise money, and he hated England. "The power of the United States will now humble England's pride," said he.

The year after this purchase the President sent out a party headed by two young men, Meriwether Lewis and William Clark, to explore the country lying west of the Mississippi. In May this expedition, consisting of forty-five men, started from St. Louis in three boats to ascend the Missouri River. The current was so strong that they advanced only a few miles each day. It took nearly all summer to reach North Dakota. With Indian guides, they pressed farther and farther west, climbed the Rocky Mountains, crossed dangerous rivers in canoes, until they finally heard the roar of the Pacific Ocean, and saw "waves like small mountains rolling out in the sea." They had been tramping a year and a half. Lewis and Clark reached home in 1806. In two years and a half they had traveled over eight thousand miles, through a wild country that had never before been crossed by a white man.

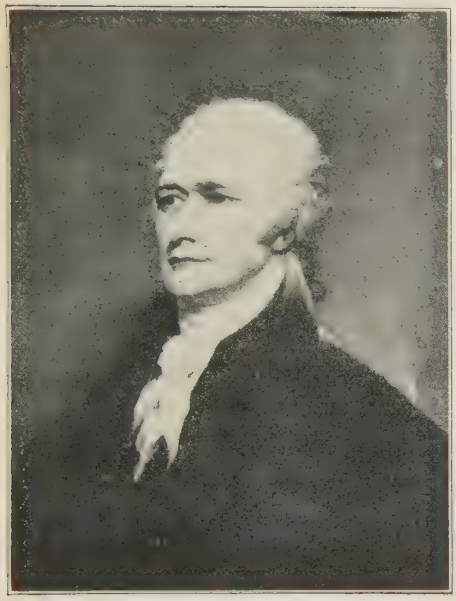
Jefferson lived to be eighty-three years old. People from far and near flocked to Monticello to see him. Every one was welcome; often he had as many as forty or fifty guests at one time. Owing partly to his generosity he lost so much money that it was at one time feared he would have to give up his home. When the people of New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore heard of this, they raised twenty thousand dollars and sent it to him. The master of Monticello was deeply touched by this "pure offering of love," as he called it, and mention of it would bring tears to his eyes.

Just fifty years after the day the Declaration of Independence was signed, Thomas Jefferson died. On the same day, a few hours earlier, his friend John Adams, who had been second President of the United States, breathed his last. Jefferson was buried in the graveyard at Monticello, and by request the stone bears this inscription:—

HERE WAS BURIED
THOMAS JEFFERSON
AUTHOR OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE, OF THE STATUTE OF VIRGINIA FOR RELIGIOUS FREEDOM, AND FATHER OF THE UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON—Born 1757—Died 1804

A glorious gift is Prudence;
  And they are useful friends
Who never make beginnings
  Till they can see the ends;
But give us now and then a man
  That we may make him king,
Just to scorn the consequence,
  And just to do the thing.
    —From an anonymous poem, "Heroes."



ALEXANDER HAMILTON

Alexander Hamilton, the greatest financier of his time, and a brilliant statesman, was born in the West Indies, on the island of Nevis. His father was Scotch and his mother French. He had little opportunity to go to school, for when he was twelve years old he began to earn his living as clerk in a counting-house. His employers showed great confidence in him, and, when he was only thirteen, allowed him to write their letters and take charge of a part of their business. Surely he was no ordinary boy.

He read the best books and wrote whenever he could find time. One day a terrible hurricane swept over the West Indies. Young Hamilton wrote such a good account of it that his relatives began to think it a great mistake not to give him a better education. They accordingly sent him by boat to Boston, where the youth arrived when he was fifteen years old.

Hamilton soon made his way to New York. He entered a grammar school at Elizabethtown, New Jersey, and studied with such eagerness that at the end of a year he was ready for college. He had intended to enter Princeton, but was resolved to go through the course of study as rapidly as he could, and not be kept back by classes. The rules at Princeton forbade taking students on such terms, so Hamilton entered King's College, New York, now Columbia University. Here, with the aid of a private tutor, he was allowed to press forward as fast as he liked.

He used to walk up and down under a row of shade trees reciting aloud his own poems, or talking earnestly to himself. People began to say that this West Indian would some day make his mark in the world.

While Hamilton was studying so eagerly, the war cloud grew blacker and blacker. In Boston the general feeling was one of resentment against England; but many persons in New York were still friendly to the king.

Rooted deep in Hamilton's nature was a love of peace, order, and govern-

ment, and he hated the lawlessness and ruin of war. He began to reason for himself about the serious condition of America, in order that he might make a fair decision as to which side he should take. He had been born in an English possession, and was therefore a subject of King George III; but the more he thought about the matter, the more convinced he became that the colonies were right, and England wrong.

While there were many Tories in New York, there were also Sons of Liberty, and they were as firm as the Boston "Sons" in refusing to pay the tax on tea. When the ship *Nancy* appeared in New York harbor, the captain was allowed to come ashore, but not to unload his cargo of tea. He saw that the only way to avoid trouble was to take it back to England, and this he hurriedly and wisely did.

The patriots of New York resented also the encampment of English soldiers on the Commons, now City Hall Park. Four times a liberty-pole was set up on the Commons, and four times the British pulled it down. This was more than the Sons of Liberty would stand. They closed their shops, tolled the bells, and made an attack upon the soldiers. What is now John Street was then known as Golden Hill, and here the skirmish between the redcoats and the colonists took place. The colonists were victorious. They now set up an iron-bound pole with a vane at the top bearing the word "Liberty." The English, remembering their beating, allowed this pole to stand.

In the hope of convincing the Tories that they were wrong, the Sons of Liberty held a meeting in an open field on July 6, 1774. Hamilton was among the thousands of eager listeners. The more the patriots talked, the more convinced he became that they left the most important things unsaid. At last, unable to keep quiet, he sprang upon the platform and began to argue the case himself. "A collegian! A collegian!" shouted the multitude, as this slender youth of seventeen stood before them. But great was their astonishment at hearing the torrent of words that fell from his lips—words so sensible and convincing that from that hour his influence began to be felt. After this Hamilton used his pen in the cause of liberty, and his political pamphlets were a great help to the colonists.

He began to study military matters and to drill with the volunteer soldiers. He was fearless in his efforts to stop the violence of mobs. One of these outbreaks was very serious. The British warship *Asia* had opened fire on New York City. Property was destroyed and many persons injured. The angry colonists rose in revolt, plundered the king's storehouse, and threatened to ruin every Tory.

It happened that Dr. Cooper, president of King's College, was a Tory and therefore one of the men whom the mob set out to find. On the steps of the college building they were met by Hamilton, who began to reason with them and show them the folly of such disorderly conduct. Imagine the astonishment of the crowd! Here was the youth who had drilled with them, talked for them, worked with them, now telling them that they were making a stupid blunder.

Dr. Cooper looked on from an upper window, but could not hear what Hamilton said. It did not occur to him that the lad was risking his popularity and perhaps his life in the interest of peace and order, so he shouted from the window to the crowd, "Do not listen to such a madman!" and then ran for his life. But the

"madman's" words had such good effect that they dispersed and went quietly to their homes.

Before he was twenty years old Hamilton had become so well known that he was given command of a company of artillery, and soon he had risen to a place as aide on Washington's staff. Thus began a long friendship between these two great men. The aide, always as ready with his pen as with his sword, was of the greatest service to his chief. In the battles in which Hamilton engaged, he showed unusual bravery and wisdom. In the siege of Yorktown he was given command of a body of troops, and at the head of his men rushed boldly upon the British, carrying everything before him.

At the close of the war Hamilton was twenty-six years of age. He had married a daughter of General Philip Schuyler, and was thus brought into relationship with the oldest and wealthiest Albany families. His fame as a brilliant aide to the commander-in-chief had spread throughout the country. In spite of the trying duties of those long years he had found time for many other things; he had studied the great questions of government and money. He was soon to show that he could be even more useful in peace than he had been in war.

From the close of the Revolution to the inauguration of Washington as President was a period of more than five years. They were years of hardship and confusion. When Washington took farewell of his soldiers, he said, "Congress is sending them home without a farthing in their pockets." The country was burdened by a heavy debt brought on by the war. This army of brave men went back penniless to ruined homes. In the next few years, instead of advancing steadily toward prosperity, the states found themselves, as Washington put it, "walking on crutches."

One of the chief difficulties was that there was no United States mint, where money might be made that would be accepted by all the states. The only coins in circulation were a few foreign pieces. Each state made its own paper money, but this was worthless in other states. There was no banking system. In some way the war debt would have to be paid, but the farmers and shopkeepers felt too poor to pay such taxes as Congress levied. And there was no one at the head of the government to enforce the laws passed by Congress.

Other troubles arose over boundary lines. The early colonists came to America bringing charters which gave them larger tracts than they had been able to clear and settle. Some of these old grants gave land "from sea to sea"; for England had no idea how large America really was. Now, when the West began to be explored, several of the states claimed the same territory, and bitter quarrels resulted.

Washington, Hamilton, and others saw that something must be done and done quickly. "Our whole system of government must be reorganized," said Washington, "or our young nation will never succeed." "First of all," said Hamilton, "we must have a government with more power. Then we must have a bank on the true principles of a bank." When in May, 1787, a convention was called to meet at Philadelphia, to draw up the Constitution of the United States, Hamilton's advice was of great service. He was also an eloquent champion of the Constitution in the critical months while its adoption was being discussed by the states.

The new Constitution provided that Congress should be composed of two bodies—the Senate and the House

of Representatives; that there should be a President, who should appoint other men to assist him in seeing that the laws were obeyed; and a national court to explain the principles laid down in the Constitution.

Washington was convinced that there was no abler man than his former aide to organize a financial system. He therefore selected Alexander Hamilton, then thirty-two years old, for the most important post in the cabinet, that of secretary of the treasury.

Hamilton had a hard task before him. The nation owed millions of dollars to France and millions of dollars to the states which had furnished money to carry on the war. "The United States," said Hamilton, "will pay every cent of this debt." But how? "We must help our people in agriculture and commerce," he replied. "We must create a better feeling between the states, so that they may be drawn more closely together. *And first of all we must have a National Bank.*"

The first National Bank was opened at Philadelphia in 1791. Many branches soon came to be scattered throughout the country. In the year following, the first United States mint was also established at Philadelphia. At last the United States had a currency that was as good in one state as in another, and as good in Europe as at home.

"Next," said Hamilton, "the people must overcome their prejudice to being taxed."

A tariff was placed on all foreign goods that arrived in port, and a tax was laid on whiskey and liquors made in America. But to this latter tax the farmers of Pennsylvania objected. When the officers of the government tried to collect it, the Pennsylvanians defied them.

Washington felt the time had come to show the states that the laws of Congress must be obeyed, so he sent fifteen thousand troops into the section that was making the trouble. Hamilton went with them. The Pennsylvanians quickly saw that further attempts to resist the law were useless, and they decided to pay the tax.

The great work that Hamilton accomplished for the United States while he was secretary of the treasury cannot be estimated. When he took charge we had, as a nation, no foreign credit. Hamilton made our credit good with every nation in Europe. We began to pay our debt so promptly that France was astonished. He created our system of making and circulating money, as well as our banking system, whereby slips of paper in the form of checks and drafts are made to pass for money.

Hamilton sacrificed personal advantage to do this great public work. Immediately after the war he had studied law, and he was so successful in its practice that he made much more than Congress could afford to pay him. When the finances of the United States were finally on a solid basis, Hamilton felt that in justice to his family, he could no longer remain secretary, so he went back to his law practice. But Washington continued to consult him almost as if he were still a member of the cabinet. His fame steadily increased, and when he died, at the early age of forty-seven, he was considered one of the best lawyers of the New York bar.

By his family and a host of friends Hamilton was deeply and tenderly loved. But it is the sad fortune of men who take an active part in public life to make political enemies. Hamilton was so honest, powerful, and fearless, that some who differed with him in politics, and were jealous of

him, hated him. Among these was Aaron Burr, who imagined that he had a political grievance against the great lawyer. So Burr wrote a bitter letter to Hamilton and challenged him to fight a duel. Unhappily, it was then the custom for men to settle disputes with pistol or sword. Hamilton did not believe in a fight between men or nations; but it was considered cowardly to refuse when challenged, and he was never a coward.

On a July morning in 1804 the duel was fought on the west bank of the Hudson, at a spot in Weehawken, but true to his principles, Hamilton would not shoot. At the first shot the noble man fell, mortally wounded, and he died the following day.

When news of his tragic fate had spread, the grief of the nation was intense. On the day of the funeral flags were displayed at half-mast, shops were closed, and bells mournfully tolled. In Trinity churchyard in New York the inscription on the tombstone of Hamilton well says that his "talents and virtues will be admired by grateful posterity long after this marble shall have moldered into dust."

Hamilton was so small and slight in figure, so strong in mind and character, that his friends called him the "little lion." His generosity to people in misfortune caused him to die a poor man. It has been said of him that "he made a nation's fortune, but never made his own." He left something far better—an illustrious name and the fame of founding institutions whose benefits we enjoy today.

DANIEL BOONE—Born 1735—Died 1820

But the mighty forest was broken
By many a steepled town,
By many a white-walled farm-house,
And many a garner brown.

Turning a score of millwheels,
The stream no more ran free,
White sails on the winding river,
White sails on the far-off sea.

—WHITTIER'S "Cobbler Keezar's Vision."

WHEN Daniel Boone was a young man our country was young. In the whole United States there were fewer people than now live in New York City. There were no railroads, and the few wagon roads were in very poor condition. There were no bridges across the great rivers. Only a small number of persons engaged in manufacture or commerce; the majority were farmers, and they did not go far from home. The people in one state knew little about the people in another, and almost nothing of the wild country that lay beyond the Alleghany Mountains.

Daniel Boone was born of English Quaker parents on a farm not many miles from Philadelphia, when that city was only a small village. The scattered farms that lay near it were surrounded by forests peopled with Indians. Daniel had no chance to go to school, but he managed to learn to read and write. When he grew up, people said of him, "Daniel Boone can hunt better than he can spell." Once

he carved on a tree "*D Boon cilled A BAR on this tree, year 1760.*" He wrote to his sister, "*With pleasuer I Rad a Later from your sun.*"

Although Daniel Boone had little opportunity to study books, he did not waste his time; he learned of nature. He knew every kind of tree in the forest, and the habits of animals and birds. He studied the clouds and winds, and understood the signs of approaching storms. He knew what berries and plants in the woods were good for food.

When he was twelve years old his father gave him a rifle, and he could soon shoot as straight as an old hunter. He rode a horse as well as his father, but he liked better to go on tramps in the woods.

In 1749, when he was fourteen, his father and mother moved south. The little band of settlers traveled five hundred miles, the women and children riding in covered wagons, the men and boys on horseback, leading or driving their cattle. At night they would camp near a stream, and the best hunters in the party would bring in game. Thus they journeyed until they reached the pleasant and fertile valley of the Yadkin River, in North Carolina.

They found the region so full of buffaloes that a few men could kill ten in one day. There were also deer, bears, and wild turkeys for food. Wolves and panthers had to be killed to make life safe on the clearing. In the winter months Daniel spent weeks at a time in the heart of the woods, hunting and trapping; in the spring he would carry the skins to the nearest market and sell them. He grew up a tall, strong man, with broad shoulders and bronzed skin. His hair was black and his eyes blue. Sometimes friendly Indians would visit the settlement to trade with the whites; at other times hostile savages would attack them. Is it any wonder that Boone early learned to take care of himself, or that he considered his gun his best friend?

The settlers wore long hunting-shirts made of deerskin or coarse cloth, and trousers and leggings of the same material. On their feet were deerskin moccasins, and their caps were of coonskin, ornamented with a bushy tail. Hanging from their belts were a powderhorn and scalping knife. The women wore garments of home made cloth, moccasins and sunbonnets.

Gradually more settlers came to that part of North Carolina where the Boone family had made its home, and as the number of hunters increased, game became scarce. This did not please Daniel. He loved the adventurous life of a pioneer, the solitude of deep forests, the sport of hunting big game. He would take one of his little sons and go into the woods for months at a time. He thought often of the great wilderness of Kentucky, and of the fine hunting he had heard was to be found there. He had been with Braddock's army in 1755 when it was put to flight by the French and Indians, and was in charge of one of the baggage wagons. When the redcoats took to their heels, Boone cut the traces, jumped on a horse, and galloped beyond the enemy's fire. But he had seen enough of the new western country to make him long to go there again.

As settlers continued to come to North Carolina, our pioneer moved farther and farther back into the hills. At length, when thirty-two years old he started with one or two friends for Kentucky. Hundreds of miles of rough country had to be explored; dangers from wild animals and Indians threatened on every side. Occasionally the men followed the trail

of savages or buffaloes, but usually they made their own path. After many exciting adventures Boone reached the land he so longed to see; and he went back to his home more dissatisfied than ever with North Carolina.

The next year he set out again for Kentucky with several companions. The explorers now built a camp, which they named Station Camp, because they used it as a station in which to store skins and dried meat. As it was impossible for hunters to carry enough salt to preserve their meat, they cured it over a fire. It was dried until almost as hard as a piece of wood.

One day in December Boone and a companion were walking near the Kentucky River, when they were suddenly surrounded by a party of Indian horsemen. There were only two white men against a large band of redskins, so there was nothing to do but surrender. The savages knew these men were hunters, and the captives were compelled to lead the way to their camp, where the Indians helped themselves to the skins and meat that the explorers had collected.

This was very discouraging, but Boone, who always looked on the bright side, was glad enough to escape alive. While his companions returned to North Carolina for ammunition and food, he remained alone in the Kentucky wilderness for three months. He had not even a horse or dog for companion. He had no bread, no salt or sugar, and so little ammunition that he dared use it to shoot only what he needed for food. Being constantly on the watch for Indians, he made his fires as small as possible, so that they would not attract attention. It was unsafe to sleep in camp, and he therefore lay down at night in some cave, or in a tangle of brush.

Once when he was exploring Dick's River, Indians suddenly appeared. Our hunter found that his only chance of escape was to leap sixty feet down a steep bank. He landed in the top of a tree, slid down the trunk, and swam a stream at its foot. The Indians did not follow him!

It was a joyful morning for the bold explorer when his brother walked into camp with a fresh store of provisions, powder, and shot. After several months of hunting, the Boones returned to North Carolina. Daniel had not seen his wife and children for two years.

It was not until 1775, that he led a colony into Kentucky to make a permanent settlement, and this time his family went with him. The most exciting experiences befell them on their journey. Occasionally one of the party was killed by a lurking Indian. Boone's eldest son died in this manner. Some of the wagons stuck fast in the muddy roads and had to be left behind. After much hardship, they reached Big Lick on the Kentucky River, where cabins were hastily built. The settlement was named Boonesboro, in honor of its leader.

If you look on the map you will see Cumberland Gap, in the Cumberland Mountains, the route the explorers took to reach the Kentucky River. This has always been called the Wilderness Road, and thousands of settlers afterward followed it in their emigrations to the West.

At first Boonesboro suffered little from the Indians. Treaties were made with them, and they promised, for a certain sum, to give up the part of the country that the white men desired. But after a while the savages became dissatisfied with their bargain, and began to trouble the settlers.

One Sunday in July, 1776, one of Boone's daughters and two friends

went out in a canoe. The current was so swift that the girls lost control of the boat, and were carried farther from the settlement than they had expected to go. Their plight was seen by Indians hiding in the bushes, and wading out to the boat, the savages captured the party. As the girls were hurried through the woods, their screams were heard by some of the settlers, who immediately started in pursuit. Although terribly frightened, the captives did not lose presence of mind. They broke off twigs and tore pieces from their clothing to scatter in their path, and thus mark their trail. After a two days' chase Boone's party overtook them, and rescued the girls unharmed.

In 1778 Boone and several companions were engaged in boiling water at one of the salt springs, in order to procure salt to preserve their meat. While part of the men watched the kettles, the others kept a lookout for Indians, and skirmished for food. One night Boone and a few companions were returning to camp in a blinding snow-storm, their pack-horses laden with buffalo meat and beaver skins, when they were overpowered by Indians.

The captives were taken to the red men's camp, where they learned that the Indians were preparing to attack Boonesboro. Now Boone had studied Indians all his life, and knew exactly how to treat them. Instead of appearing frightened, he whistled, sang, and made himself useful. This greatly pleased the chief, "Black Fish," and he adopted the white man as his son. Boone told the Indians that it would be foolish to attack Boonesboro in cold weather, with snow lying deep upon the ground, but that, if they would wait until spring, he would lead them to the settlement. "We will then surrender," said he, "and you may sell us to the English."

Although these western pioneers were far from the scenes of battle, the Revolutionary War was still raging, and the British had offered the Indians one hundred dollars apiece for every American prisoner delivered. Is it strange that the Indians wished to capture Boonesboro?

When the warm weather came, Boone managed to escape. For four days he tramped through the forest and in all that time had only one meal. He walked and ran one hundred and sixty miles. Imagine the surprise of the settlers when their leader walked into Boonesboro! He had been gone nearly five months, and had been given up for dead.

The hunter warned his friends of their danger, and they fell to work building a strong wall and forts around the little clearing. It was not long before the Indians appeared. Boone and one or two others went outside the walls to try to make a treaty with them. Black Fish wept at what he called his son's ingratitude in running away. After talking pleasantly for a few moments the treacherous savages fell upon the white men and tried to kill them. After a hard struggle the settlers managed to get inside their fortress, and there was now nothing to do but fight. The siege lasted ten days, and sometimes the fighting continued all through the night.

At last the red men became discouraged, and disappeared into the woods as silently as they had come. Thus ended the longest and hardest Indian attack ever made on any town in Kentucky. When it was over, the settlers picked up one hundred and twenty-five pounds of flattened bullets that had been fired against the log fort.

In 1779 large companies of emigrants from the Carolinas, Virginia,

Pennsylvania, and New York, made their way to Boonesboro. It was not long before a considerable quantity of corn, tobacco, melons, and pumpkins were raised. Droves of horses, sheep, and cattle grazed on the hillsides. A profitable fur trade was carried on with the people on the Atlantic coast.

As Daniel Boone was never happy in a large settlement, he packed up once more, left Boonesboro, and retreated to a wilder country. The Indians continued for years to give the white settlers trouble, and Boone had other hair-breadth escapes. His services were always in demand by new arrivals, who desired to learn of him how to shoot big game, and to defend themselves against Indians. His fame as a hunter and explorer spread over the United States, and even to Europe.

But this modest, silent man did not care for fame. He had lived such a solitary life that he could not be happy out of the woods. "It is too crowded," he would say. "I must have more elbow room." His last pioneer excursion was made in 1795 to Missouri, a country then so little known that when people heard of his plans they came for miles—to see him set out.

In what is now St. Charles County, Missouri, about forty-five miles from St. Louis, the pioneer passed his last years. When he was eighty, and weakened eyesight prevented his hunting, he would still spend months at a time in the forest, engaged in trapping. His wife and sons continued to share his rough, exciting life. His sons grew to be prosperous men, trusted and respected. In the house of one of them, the first stone house ever built in Missouri, the mighty hunter breathed his last. To the very end he refused to sleep in a bed preferring to wrap himself in a blanket and lie on the floor. He said he liked to be reminded of the hundreds of nights when he had slept on the cool earth.

Daniel Boone died in his eighty-sixth year and was laid to rest near the bank of the Missouri River. Later, the people of Kentucky asked to have his body buried in Frankfort, where a monument now marks the spot.

The hardihood and daring of men like Boone opened the great West. Fields of waving grain, gardens, orchards, houses, and barns are spread over that country; and there are prosperous cities where once stood the little log cabins and rude forts of Daniel Boone and his fellow-pioneers.

BOONE SURPRISED BY INDIANS

HORACE MANN—Born 1796—Died 1859

'Tis education forms the common mind;
Just as the twig is bent the tree's inclined.
—Pope's, "Moral Essays."

WHEN one thinks of Greece, he remembers that the Greeks set a world standard for art, and gave the other nations the idea of beauty. The republic and empire of Rome will always be connected in most minds with the establishment of law. France gave to the world its modern standards in all the fine arts. England was the first country in the Christian era to insist that the common people should have a voice in the government. But the United States of America first gave the idea of universal compulsory education.

HORACE MANN

When we think of free public education, we remember that it was the United States who showed the other nations of the world that it was not only possible but indispensable. And when we think of the founding of the American system of free, universal, public schools, the first name that comes into our minds is that of Horace Mann.

We cannot forget, of course, that when the Ordinance of 1787 was passed, it provided that there should be free and universal education in the new country of the Northwest Territory. We cannot claim that Horace Mann originated this American idea, but when we read through the list of those who have given American public education a forward impulse, his name stands out head and shoulders above the rest.

Who was this man? From what stuff did he come? What was his own education, that it produced this passionate longing to give education to others?

Born at Franklin, Massachusetts, on the 4th of May, 1796, he passed his early life in poverty and privation. His father died when Horace was thirteen years old. He tells, himself, that the district in which he was reared was the poorest one in Massachusetts, that it had the most wretched schoolhouses, and that it hired the cheapest and most incompetent teachers.

As Francis Bacon has told us, "reading maketh a full man." It has been noteworthy that few Americans have risen to greatness, who did not from early childhood fill and store their minds from the treasure houses of the past. Horace Mann, like Abraham

HORACE MANN SCHOOL, NEW YORK CITY
This famous school is a part of Teachers College and is affiliated with Columbia University.

Lincoln, Theodore Roosevelt and Woodrow Wilson, was always a greedy and omnivorous reader. Given the ability to read, and a love for reading, and any child will educate himself, in spite of incompetent teachers and dilapidated schoolhouses.

Has it ever occurred to us that the reason why, through all our nation's history, New England has produced far more than her share of our national leaders in thought and education, is that from the first, she has been the leader in founding and maintaining free public libraries? Luckily, in Franklin there was a small collection of books available to the public through the town library. These books young Horace Mann read and re-read. A wandering schoolmaster who boarded for a time with the Mann family gave him lessons in Latin, Greek and English grammar. His own schooling, up to the time that he was sixteen, was very inadequate. Eight or ten weeks a year was as much as the town could afford to give the children, and during the other forty weeks they often forgot all that they had learned the preceding winter.

Horace was twenty years old when he finally was admitted to college. It was the fall of 1816 when he entered Brown University. His health was none too good. Lack of proper food in his youth, the necessity of working hard to support the other members of the family as well as himself, and other causes, had given him a touch of tuberculosis. He had to work his way through college, and he was trying desperately hard to cover the remainder of the course in three years. This he finally did, graduating with the class of 1819. Two years later he had scraped together enough money to enter law school, and in 1823 he was admitted to the bar.

At the age of twenty-eight, he was elected a member of the Massachusetts state legislature, and four years later he became a member of the state Senate. As a lawmaker, he was responsible for many humanitarian and progressive measures. It was entirely due to him, for example, that the state insane asylum at Worcester was founded. In fact, he practically organized it single-handed. Due chiefly to his unceasing efforts, the legislature

in 1837 created a State Board of Education to reorganize the entire common-school system of the state.

Having sponsored this measure in the legislature, and having brought about its adoption, Mann felt responsible for seeing that it was carried out. Accordingly, he gave up his work as a lawyer, and resigned his seat in the Senate, in order to become the secretary and executive officer of this newly-created Board. For the next twelve years he held this important position. He lectured all over the state. He held teachers' institutes everywhere. He worked incessantly, sometimes hardly allowing himself time for sufficient sleep. It is not too much to say that Massachusetts, for so many years noted as the leader of all the states in free public education, owes that position solely to his efforts.

Once a year he published a report of what his Board had accomplished. These twelve annual reports furnished inspiration for teachers all over the country, and became the foundation of our large and rapidly growing library on the profession of teaching. He was the founder and editor of the "Common School Journal," a periodical which had wide circulation and great influence with teachers. He wrote voluminously. Among his books are "Lectures on Education," "Thoughts for a Young Man," "Letters and Speeches on Slavery," "Powers and Duties of Women."

In 1849 Mann was elected to Congress to fill the vacancy caused by the death of ex-President John Quincy Adams. In Washington he labored as faithfully for the cause of national education as in the Massachusetts legislature he had worked for the good of the schools of the state. He strongly urged the creation of a national bureau of education. He did not live to see this brought about, but undoubtedly he gave the first impulse to the movement which afterwards resulted in the establishment of this office.

After two terms in Congress, he was offered and accepted the presidency of the newly formed Antioch College at Yellow Springs, Ohio. While Antioch College is well known, there are few persons who are aware that Horace Mann is its founder. Hard work and the privations of his early life had undermined his health, and he died six years later, just before the nomination of Abraham Lincoln.

Before Horace Mann's time it had been assumed that anyone who had sufficient education knew how to teach. He was the first to show that teachers need training for their work just as members of other professions need a thorough course of instruction in technique. He was responsible for the establishment of the first normal school in America.

It was his fate never to enjoy in life the fame which has come to him since his death. The common school and the teachers' training institution did not bulk very large in the eyes of the nation in 1840. As our school system grows and assumes greater importance, all the more praise and fame comes to the simple-hearted, single-minded champion of the children of America—Horace Mann of Massachusetts.

JOHN MARSHALL—Born 1755—Died 1835

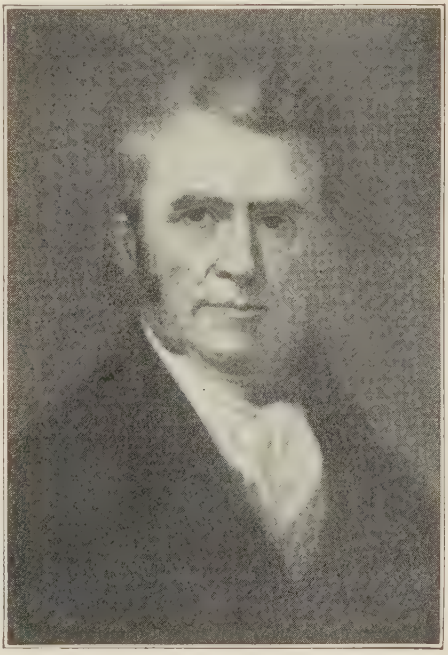
But the sunshine aye shall light the sky,
As round and round we run;
And the Truth shall ever come uppermost,
And Justice shall be done.
—CHARLES MACKAY'S "Eternal Justice."

ONE morning in the early days of the last century a young man, a recent comer to Richmond, was buying a turkey at the market. Fretting over the fact that no one would deliver the turkey, an elderly man stepped up and volunteered to carry the fowl. Arriving at the home of the young man the inquiry was made as to what payment was expected. "Oh, nothing," was the reply, "it was on my way, and no trouble." As the older man walked away, the younger asked a bystander who the polite old gentleman was. "That," was the reply, "is Judge Marshall, Chief Justice of the United States."

John Marshall is known to fame as the greatest jurist that America has produced and one of the world's best lights in the legal profession. He held the position of Chief Justice for 34 years, a longer period than that of any other. He took the office that John Jay had said could never acquire proper dignity and influence and made it supreme. Marshall said that he would rather be Chief Justice than President, and he meant it.

Born in Virginia, and on that peninsula of which Governor Barbour said, "It is the prolific soil that grows presidents," John was one of fifteen children. The father was Colonel Thomas Marshall, who has been characterized as "a man of uncommon capacity and vigor of intellect." The Chief Justice always spoke in the most affectionate and reverent terms of his father and said, "To him I owe the solid foundation of all my own success in life."

The early foundations for a career were laid broadly through study and at the age of twelve it is said the youthful student knew by heart a large portion of Pope's writings and was very familiar with Shakespeare, Dryden and Milton. He pursued the study of Latin at home. At eighteen he began the study of law.



From a painting by Henry Inman; reproduced in the Life of John Marshall, by Albert J. Beveridge

The Revolution interrupted his studies and before his twentieth birthday he became a volunteer soldier. His attention went toward perfecting

himself in the details of drill and equipment and his personality, coupled with his knowledge, inspired everyone with whom he came in contact. Suffice it to say, the young soldier rose to the rank of captain, spent the winter with Washington at Valley Forge, and was in many engagements with the greatest credit.

In 1780-81 Marshall was admitted to the bar and with the splendid basis on which he had built, it is not surprising that he quickly became a power in his profession.

A contemporary has written of the qualities of mind which completely overshadowed everything else in Marshall: "This extraordinary man, without the aid of fancy, without the advantages of person, voice, attitude, gesture, or any of the ornaments of an orator, deserves to be considered as one of the most eloquent men in the world; if eloquence may be said to consist in the power of seizing the attention with irresistible force, and never permitting it to elude the grasp until the hearer has received the conviction which the speaker intends."

Although the inclination of Mr. Marshall was to stay in his law practice, he was called to serve his commonwealth as a member of the legislature during the years from 1782 to 1787.

In 1788 he was a delegate to the state convention which adopted the Federal Constitution. His principal opponent there was Patrick Henry, and the speeches at this convention were long and vigorous. Marshall directed his debates toward Henry and the result showed in adoption by ten votes.

After the close of the constitutional convention, Marshall resumed the practice of law, but was besieged with requests for public service. He turned down the offer of a cabinet position under his old friend Washington, but later accepted a place as a member of a commission of three to France to adjust questions connected with restrictions on American commerce.

Following this mission, we find him in Congress. Next he accepted the portfolio of State under John Adams, and remained there one year. Just 32 days before the expiration of Adams' term as President, Marshall became Chief Justice.

The limits of our chronicle cannot give space to more than a mere mention of the accomplishments of this man who for thirty-four years sat as head of our most distinguished tribunal, and won for himself the distinction of being the father of American constitutional law.

Among decisions made was that of Marbury vs. Madison in which it was declared to be the duty of the court to disregard any act of Congress which is contrary to the Constitution of the United States. In another case, Fletcher vs. Peck, Marshall declared a state law void because it was contrary to the constitution. His interpretations of the Constitution are important and permanent parts of American public law.

On the 6th of July, 1835, the long and honorable career of the great jurist came to a close. His passing was regarded everywhere as a national calamity and every form of respect and sympathy was shown.

At a meeting of a long established social club, of which the Chief Justice had long been an active member, a fitting resolution was passed regarding the vacancy. It was deemed appropriate and was decreed that "there should be no attempt to fill it ever; but that the number of the club should remain one less than it was before his death."

ELI WHITNEY—Born 1765—Died 1825

The spinner sang in the hush of noon
  And her song was low:
"Ah, morning, you pass away too soon,
  You are swift to go."

The spinner looked at the falling sun:
  "Is it time to rest?
My hands are weary,—my work is done,
  I have wrought my best."
—MARY DE VERE'S "The Spinner."

MANY years ago there lived in the town of Westboro, Massachusetts, a boy by the name of Eli Whitney. Like most New England youths of the time, he early learned to work with his hands. He was fond of study, but he was perhaps more fond of tools. His father had a workshop where he mended farm implements, and here Eli would spend hours at a time, making windmills and waterwheels for pleasure, or nails for money. Today nails are manufactured by machinery, but at that time they were made by hand. Whitney would put a slender bar of iron into the fire, and, when it was red-hot, cut off short pieces and beat these into nails.

Young Whitney's parents could not afford to give him a college education, so he worked with his tools, and taught school, until he earned money to pay his tuition at Yale College. In 1792 he graduated and went to Georgia, where he expected to obtain a position as private tutor; but, through some misunderstanding, the place had been filled before he arrived

You remember that the people of Georgia gave General Nathanael Greene a beautiful home on the Savannah River, and that he died soon after moving there with his family. When Eli Whitney found himself without money or work, Mrs. Greene offered him a home. The young man had hoped to study law while he supported himself by teaching; now Mrs. Greene's kindness made it still possible for him to prepare for his chosen profession.

Side by side with his study of law, Whitney continued his mechanical experiments. His labor-saving devices were such a help about the house and farm buildings that everyone who saw them thought that there was nothing beyond his power to invent.

One day visitors at Mulberry Grove, as the place was called, discussed the question of raising cotton—its easy growth in the South, and the large markets that might be found for it. The only difficulty was the slow and expensive operation of separating the cotton from the seed. It took a negro one whole day to clean one or two pounds, and therefore it did not pay to raise cotton.

"Oh, ask Mr. Whitney to invent a machine for cleaning it," said Mrs. Greene. "He can make anything."

When the matter was first brought to Whitney's attention, he had never seen raw cotton, that is, cotton from which the seeds had not been removed. It happened to be winter time, so he had some difficulty in obtaining a few cotton pods with which to experiment. But "where there's a

will there's a way," and the young man finally succeeded in getting enough for his purpose.

He immediately set to work to study it. He found that after the plant had flowered, the seed pod formed. This was called the cotton boll, and contained lint and seed. Would it be possible to separate this seed from the lint by machinery, instead of by hand?

For many weeks Whitney experimented with his engine, or "gin," as it came to be called, working under the greatest difficulties. He needed fine iron wire, but the only way he could get it was to draw it himself by hand. He required many iron tools that could not then be bought, so he was forced to make them. The only persons whom he allowed to see the machine were Mrs. Greene and a young friend by the name of Miller.

One day Whitney exclaimed joyfully, "I have won the victory!" Several friends were invited to witness the working of the gin. When it was set in motion, the onlookers saw that the cotton passed over a series of saws, and that the teeth of the saws separated the lint from the seed. But, after the engine had worked for a short time, the teeth became clogged with cotton, and the machinery stopped.

Mrs. Greene now came to the rescue. "This is what you need," said she, and taking up a brush she cleaned the teeth. Then she held the brush close to the saw, while the wheels were again started, and this time they did not stop, for the brush kept the teeth clean. Whitney turned to Mrs. Greene and said gratefully, "You have perfected my invention." He therefore added to his machine a set of stiff brushes, and as the cylinders revolved, these brushes kept the teeth of the saws free from lint. The machine was patented in 1794.

Just before the gin was finished, the building was broken into one night and the machine stolen. But Whitney set to work to make another, and when the second one was completed, farmers and planters came, eager to watch the result. Great was their surprise and delight, when they found that this remarkable gin could clean one thousand pounds of cotton, while a man was cleaning one or two pounds!

Young Whitney did not dream that he had accomplished something of marvelous importance in the progress of American industry, something that would make his name famous all over the world. Without knowing it, he had started another revolution; but happily it was a peaceful revolution of industry. The men who took part in it were engaged in work, and not in warfare.

Heretofore only a little cotton had been grown in America. Each planter would raise enough for his wife and daughters to make into homespun cloth for the family's use. But when it took one person a day to clean a pound or two, cotton cloth was an expensive luxury. It was worth from one to two dollars a yard.

Now all this was changed by the invention of the cotton gin. Land that had been valuable for raising rice, tobacco, and indigo, was found to be three times as valuable for raising cotton. The lint was packed in bales of three or four hundred pounds, and shipped to the northern states, or to England. Soon the South began to send so many bales to England that people would not believe it was all raised in America, and accused the merchants of smuggling it from the West Indies. At about this time England had invented improved machinery for making cotton cloth.

Thousands of acres from the Carolinas to Louisiana that had been of

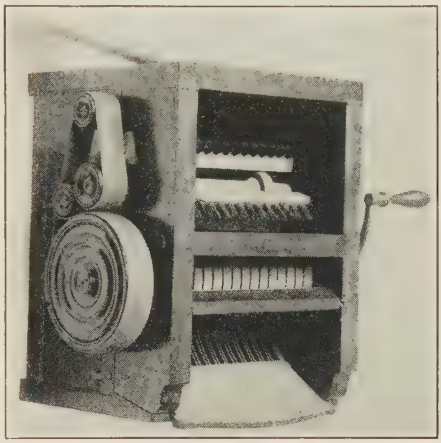
little value before, were now covered with cotton. So many vessels were needed for carrying the bales, that the demand for ships was enormously increased. America began to build factories of her own for the manufacture of cotton cloth, particularly in the New England states, which have ever since been noted for their cotton mills. Not many years after the cotton gin was invented, the South sent forty million pounds to England. Today the yearly exports are about three billions of pounds. It is easy to understand why cotton is called "King."

The cotton industry was the most important step in the development of our new country, still poor from the drain of its long war. But Eli Whitney, who had done so much to make others prosperous, could not make even a living out of this invention. We have seen how his first machine was carried off in the night when it was nearly finished. Before he could get the second one patented, his ideas had been stolen, and similar machines were made and put on the market. The only way that he could obtain payment was by going to law, and he brought sixty lawsuits before one was decided in his favor.

Discouraged by the treatment that he received in the South, the inventor went back to New England. He was now thirty-three years old. He took up the manufacture of firearms near New Haven, Connecticut, and in this he made a fortune.

Up to that time a single workman had made all the parts of a gun. Whitney set each man to making one or two parts only, so that thousands of firearms were being made at the same time. Soon he received large contracts from the government for an improved musket of his invention. He built an armory two miles from New Haven, which was much better than any that had been erected in America. The place that the inventor had chosen for his factory grew into a thriving village, and is today called Whitneyville.

Eli Whitney died in his sixtieth year. He was always kind and generous, and



U. S. Natl. Mus. Photo
WHITNEY'S COTTON GIN

left to his college a fund for the purchase of books on mechanical science.

We have learned since Whitney's time to use the cotton seed as well as the cotton lint. By the aid of machinery the seeds are pressed until all the oil is extracted, and this oil is used for many purposes. The seeds are then dried, ground, and made into meal, which is excellent food for cattle, and is also a good fertilizer.

No other labor-saving invention has done more for the industry and wealth of the United States than Whitney's cotton gin.

ROBERT FULTON—Born 1765—Died 1815

While hoarsely the steam from her 'scape pipes
Shouted, then whispered a moment, then shouted again to the silence,
Trembling through all her frame with the mighty pulse of her engines,
Slowly the boat ascended.

—HOWELLS'S "The Pilot's Story."

ROBERT FULTON gave us the commercially practical steamboat. Before this time, the colonists had to depend on sailing vessels to carry them from colony to colony, or across the sea to England—a very uncertain method of travel, for the speed of a sailing vessel depends entirely upon the wind. Even with the most favorable breezes, it took several days to go from Boston to New York, and five or six weeks to cross the Atlantic. There was also no satisfactory way to navigate the inland waters of America. The emigrants who came from Europe in ever larger numbers to settle the great West had to journey by land over rough forest trails that were often almost impassable. Frequently they had to delay to cut down trees and build rude bridges.

The steamboat of Robert Fulton completely changed these slow methods of travel. Instead of the uncertain movements of sailboats, or the long, tedious journeys overland, large craft driven by steam were to ply to and fro across the Atlantic, and over the inland rivers and lakes, carrying thousands of westward-bound families, carrying traders back and forth between settlements, and furs and farm products to the markets of America.

Fulton was born of poor Irish parents in the town of Little Britain, near Lancaster, Pennsylvania, in 1765—the year in which Eli Whitney was born, and the year of the great agitation over the Stamp Act. His father died when Robert was only three years old.

At school young Fulton showed little liking for books. He preferred to give his time and thought to drawing and to making mechanical inventions. One morning he came to school very late. Upon being asked why he was not on time, he held out a pencil, and explained that he had been busy at a shop hammering a piece of lead into a strip of wood. "I think," said he, "that I have made a better pencil than any that is in use." The teacher examined it and found the boy was right, and soon all the pupils were using this new kind of pencil.

A few years later Robert was eager for some new fireworks for a Fourth of July celebration. He experimented with gunpowder and pasteboard, and the result was the first skyrocket ever made in America.

One of the boy's chief pleasures was fishing. With a companion, he would spend hours in a flat-bottomed boat, which was pushed from place to place by long poles. But this was tiresome work, and young Fulton thought out a plan to make the boat go by an easier method. He made two paddle wheels, placed one on each side of the boat, and connected them by a crank which was turned by hand. It was now fun instead of work to go up and down the stream.

Among Fulton's friends was Benjamin West, the first American portrait painter to make a name for himself both at home and in Europe. Fulton had always been fond of drawing, and when he was seventeen years old he thought that he, also, would like to be an artist. So he went to Philadelphia, and for three or four years

worked hard at drawing and painting. He not only supported himself but saved four hundred dollars; and with this money bought a little home for his mother.

Robert Fulton had now grown to be a handsome young man, six feet tall, slender, with large, dark eyes, and a charm of manner that won many friends. Throughout his life he was sympathetic, modest, and generous. He often said that the only use he had for money was to help others.

When Benjamin West went to London, Fulton followed, but the old love of invention drove painting from his mind. He began a series of experiments to prove canal navigation in England, hoping by this means to learn how to aid America. "It is now eleven years," he said, "since I have had this plan in contemplation for the good of my country. I look forward to the time when canals shall pass through every vale, wind around each hill, and bind the whole country together." It was largely owing to his efforts that the system of canals in New York state was undertaken.

Fulton invented also a mill for sawing marble, a machine for spinning flax, and a dredging machine. He built iron bridges, that people traveled a long way to see. He also invented a submarine boat, which he tested in France; this was the first torpedo boat ever built. Napoleon gave Fulton an old boat on the river Seine to experiment with, and Fulton's torpedo blew it to atoms.

He could take his diving boat twenty-five feet below the surface of the water and remain there an hour. He hated war and thought one good way to prevent it would be to invent something that could instantly destroy battleships, for this would discourage nations from fighting at sea. He would give neither England nor France the sole right to use his torpedo boat. "If you were to grant me twenty thousand pounds a year," he told the English government, "I would sacrifice all to the safety and independence of my country."

Though Fulton made inventions of many kinds, nothing else interested him so much as steamboat navigation; for he knew that this was what the United States needed to help her progress. While the inventor was living in France, Robert Livingston, American minister to that country, offered to lend him money to build a steamboat on the Seine. The boat was completed, but the machinery was too heavy for the timber work, and it sank.

Fulton, however, was not discouraged. For twenty-four hours he stood knee-deep in water, without a morsel of food, directing his men how to raise the wreck, and the machinery was at last saved. A larger boat was built for it, and this time a short journey was made, but the speed was so slow that Fulton was not yet satisfied.

On his return to America he continued to work out his ideas. At length a boat thirty feet long, eighteen feet wide, with paddle wheels fifteen feet in diameter, was ready for trial. Mr. Livingston had again furnished the money, and the boat was named the *Clermont*, for his country place on the bank of the river.

On the 11th of August, 1807, thousands of persons in New York flocked to the banks of the Hudson. Fulton had promised that on that day he would steam up the river with the *Clermont*. Few persons had any idea that the boat could be made to go. "It is ridiculous to expect such a thing," said many in the crowd, and everybody was prepared to have a good laugh at his expense. Some even

went so far as to say that Fulton was crazy, or he never would make such an attempt. But all were to learn the wisdom of the old adage, "He laughs best who laughs last."

From out the great black chimney, smoke and sparks were flying, and the big paddle wheels were beginning to turn. This time no hand-turned crank drove the wheels, as in the old fishing days, but steam was the power that was moving the boat up the river. The eager crowd strained their eyes in astonishment at the sight. "Will it keep going? Can he reach Albany?" If only they might follow him!

Proudly the *Clermont* rode the water, while the astonished people living along the banks ran down to the water's edge for a better view of this queer craft. At night, with its huge smokestack belching fumes and fire, it appeared to the more superstitious like a "sea monster." Said one old man, "The devil is coming up the river on a raft."

Fulton made the trip from New York to Albany in thirty-two hours; the swiftest sailing vessel required three or four days to make the journey. People now tried to forget that they had ever made fun of the inventor, or had called his boat "Fulton's Folly." On the contrary, they were quick to say that he was a great man, whose wonderful steamboat would be of immense value to America.

And so it proved; for not only did the *Clermont* make regular trips between New York and Albany, but in a few years steamboats were plying on our western rivers and the Great Lakes. In 1811 the first steamboat was launched on the Ohio River, and eight years afterward steamers carried emigrants in great numbers over Lake Erie and Lake Michigan. The simple Indians along the western waterways were dreadfully frightened by these boats, which they called "Big Fire Canoes."

Marietta, the oldest town in Ohio, had been founded about twenty years. Now thousands of pioneers poured into Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, and Illinois, where only hundreds had been able to go before.

Under his direction large steam ferryboats were built to ply between New York and New Jersey, and between New York and Long Island. Up to this time the ferries had been either rowboats, or boats propelled by a horse walking a treadmill to turn the wheels. Fulton invented the first steam warship, and he was making a new torpedo boat at the time of his death.

In his fiftieth year, while crossing from New Jersey to New York in stormy weather, he caught a severe cold which ended in death. He was taken away when his usefulness and fame were at their height.

He lies buried in the vault of his wife's family, the Livingstons, in Trinity Churchyard, New York. A vast number of persons, including officers of the government, attended his funeral. While the long procession was moving to Trinity Church, a salute of guns was fired from the Battery. A statue to his memory stands in Central Park.

Twelve years after Fulton's *Clermont* made a trial trip up the Hudson, steam was applied to an ocean-going vessel. In 1819 the *Savannah*, the first American steamship, crossed the Atlantic, sailing from Savannah to Liverpool in twenty-seven days.

New York has been called the "Cradle of Steam Navigation." There both the *Clermont* and *Savannah* were built; and there took place the first successful venture in steam navigation that has since revolutionized the commerce of the world.

ROBERT FULTON

OLIVER HAZARD PERRY—Born 1785—Died 1819

Ay, tear her tattered ensign down!
  Long has it waved on high,
And many an eye has danced to see
  That banner in the sky;
Beneath it rung the battle shout,
  And burst the cannon's roar;—
The meteor of the ocean's air
  Shall sweep the clouds no more.

—HOLMES'S "Old Ironsides."

WHEN we visit a picture gallery, we carry away a recollection of many splendid pictures. From among them all, however, a few stand out with particular clearness—the pictures we can never forget. It is the same when we study history, which is like a gallery of great men and noble deeds. We remember many names fairly well; but some we recall with peculiar vividness, and among these is the name of Oliver Hazard Perry.

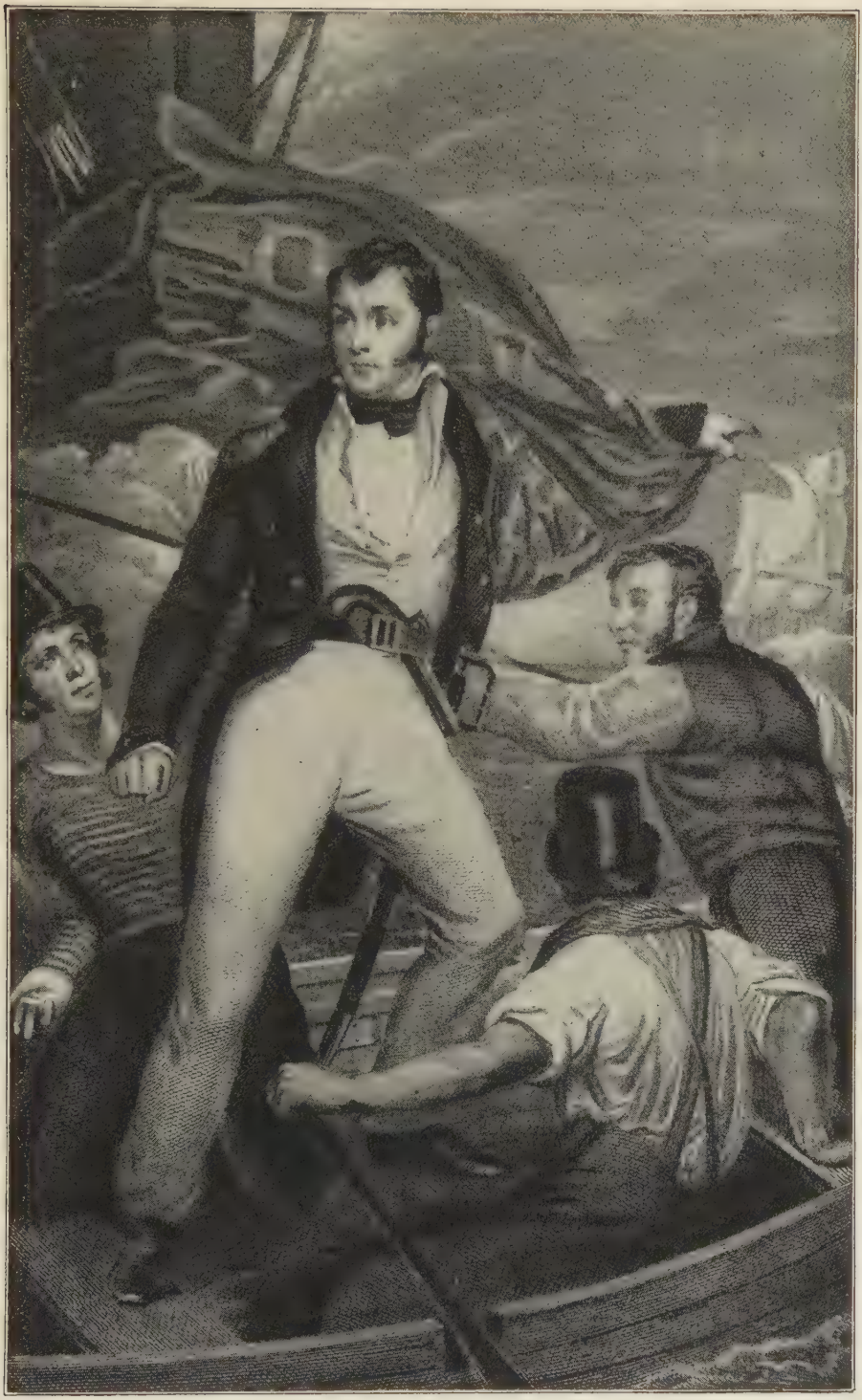
Perry's father was a distinguished naval commander, his mother a woman of strong character and fine mind, who trained her five sons to lofty ideals of patriotism and duty. All of them became officers in the United States Navy, and the most famous, Oliver, won a great victory over the English, about which we shall soon learn. Those who had known his mother said, "This is Mrs. Perry's victory."

Oliver was born at South Kingston, Rhode Island. He was educated at private schools, where he showed a love for mathematics and navigation. When only fourteen years of age, he became midshipman in the navy, and sailed with his father on a cruise to the West Indies.

Sailors in those days led a hard, dangerous life. For hundreds of years pirates from the Barbary States on the north coast of Africa had scoured the seas and robbed merchant vessels. Often they would capture a ship, hold the officers for ransom, and sell the sailors into slavery. The nations of Europe tried in vain to stop these outrages. When large numbers of American vessels became engaged in commerce, our country, also, suffered from these pirates. Accordingly Congress resolved to put an end to such intolerable conditions.

While Jefferson was President an American fleet under command of Captain Preble was sent to the Mediterranean to bombard Tripoli. Oliver Perry accompanied this squadron. After an engagement one of our vessels, the *Philadelphia*, ran on a rock and was abandoned. The Tripolitans succeeded in floating the boat, and towing it into their harbor, began to refit it for their own use. Naturally, the Americans did not wish their ship used by these sea-rovers. They would rather have it destroyed. One night, under cover of darkness, a young lieutenant, Stephen Decatur, with a picked crew, entered the harbor, boarded the *Philadelphia*, and set fire to the vessel. "Better a smoking ruin than a pirate ship," said he. The Americans managed to get back to their fleets, although more than one hundred of the enemy's guns were turned on them. The *Philadelphia* burned to the water's edge. A great English admiral called this "the most bold and daring act of the age."

Young Perry was one of the men chosen to go on this dangerous errand,



"I'LL FETCH HIM UP!"
Commodore Perry leaving the Lawrence for the Niagara

and he took part in all the engagements that followed. After a year or two the enemy was forced to give up its attempts to plunder American vessels.

Oliver Perry had shown such courage and ability in the Mediterranean that at the age of twenty-two he was made a lieutenant. He superintended the building of a fleet of gunboats at Newport, on Narragansett Bay, and when they were finished, was placed in command. He never wearied in his efforts to train his crew, and all his leisure was given to the study of guns and naval warfare. Soon he became known as one of the ablest officers in the navy.

The Revolution had shown England that she could not conquer Americans on land; but even the severe lesson that Paul Jones had taught her on the sea did not prevent her insulting our ships. England and France were still fighting each other, and England needed more men for her navy than the country could furnish. So she began to waylay American vessels, carry off the seamen, and force them to serve in her own navy, claiming that they were deserters from English ships. It was estimated at one time that seven thousand American sailors were being forced to serve in the British navy.

One day in 1806 the *Chesapeake*, an American vessel, was lying off the coast of Virginia, her commander not expecting attack and unprepared for it. Up sailed a British frigate which opened fire upon our ship, killing or wounding more than twenty men and carrying away a part of the crew. This cowardly outrage stirred the whole country.

Now France, fearing the United States might help England, had issued a decree forbidding American vessels to sail in English ports. England, equally fearful of our helping France, insisted that we should not do business at a French port. This practically stopped all foreign trade, and was a great hardship to hundreds who depended for their living upon ocean commerce. John Fiske says: "The two great naval powers in the world were thus united in a wholesale robbery of American ships and American merchandise. But England did us most harm because she had more warships and more privateers than France."

Finally, America could endure such treatment no longer. A second war with Great Britain was declared, and this is called the War of 1812.

By offering a bounty for American scalps, the English in Canada won many Indians to their side, and with the aid of these allies they planned to capture our Northwest Territory. To do this they must get control of Lake Ontario and Lake Erie, so they sent a fleet of battleships up the St. Lawrence River to these lakes. When Lieutenant Perry first heard that war was declared, he wrote to the secretary of the navy, "I hope to be sent where I may meet the enemies of my country," and he was now ordered to go to Lake Erie, build a fleet of vessels, and drive the English from these waters,

Perry received his orders in February, 1813. Bidding his young wife good-by, and taking with him a brother thirteen years old, he set out on his long journey. Neither railroad, bridge, nor canal had then been built, and the travelers encountered many difficulties before Buffalo was reached. When they came to streams that were not frozen they had to cross the swollen water in canoes, and often they were obliged to tramp on foot for miles through tangled underbrush. Perry was more than one month in going from Newport, Rhode Island, to Erie, Pennsylvania.

The country along the border of Lake Erie was a wilderness, and Perry and his carpenters, who had been sent from New York and Philadelphia, had much to endure while forest trees were being cut and the squadron built. With great patience and industry nine vessels were finished. Only two, however, were large enough to be called men-of-war. These were the *Lawrence* and the *Niagara*. Perry chose the former for his flagship, naming it in honor of brave Captain Lawrence of the *Chesapeake*, whose dying words were, "Don't give up the ship." Perry chose these words for his motto. He had them printed in large white letters on a blue flag, which he flew from his masthead.

But, now that his vessels were ready, Perry could not get sailors enough to man them. One by one the ships of the British squadron began to sail into Lake Erie and anchor before his eyes. What was he to do? In desperation he sent a message to the secretary of the navy urging haste, and at last the sailors arrived.

On the morning of September 10, 1813, Perry's little squadron left Put-in-Bay, and immediately sought the enemy's fleet. Then followed two hours of battle, in which the *Lawrence* was almost totally destroyed. The English were confident of victory. Only eight men were left alive on the flagship.

It was a frightful moment, yet Perry did not despair. He helped to fire the last gun; then, catching up his flag and leading his brother by the hand, he stepped into a small boat and ordered his men to row to the *Niagara*. Instantly the British guns were turned upon the frail craft. A shot broke one of the oars and another pierced the side of the boat. Perry was obliged to strip off his coat and plug the hole to keep the boat from sinking. He thought of his terrible responsibility, for this battle might decide whether England or America should possess the great West. Already our army had surrendered the whole of Michigan. The battle *must* be won!

Almost as if by miracle the little boat came safely alongside the *Niagara* and the young commander sprang aboard. He gave orders to keep up the fight, and a deadly fire swept the British decks. The tide of battle turned, and by the middle of the afternoon the British hauled down their flag. The man who had forced this humiliating surrender was only twenty-seven years of age. Using his cap for a desk, and writing on the back of an old letter, Perry sent a hasty dispatch to General Harrison, "We have met the enemy and they are ours." This famous message is now carved on his monument. Congress showed its appreciation by giving Perry a vote of thanks and a medal, and by making him a captain.

Perry's brilliant victory turned the tide of war, for he gained more on water than our army had lost on land. England had paid dearly for her lack of respect for the American flag. At the beginning of the struggle our navy consisted of a dozen ships; the British navy of one thousand, and over one hundred of these were along our coast. England had been at war with France for nearly twenty years, and in all that time had lost but five ships; yet in the six battles with the United States navy in the first year of the war, she was defeated every time.

Is it strange that America regarded her ships with pride? One of the most famous was the *Constitution*, which in 1812 met the British warship *Guerrière* near the coast of Nova Scotia. In less than half an hour the *Guerrière* was battered to pieces

and set on fire. The English had called the *Constitution* "a bundle of pine boards," but she came out of the struggle with almost no damage. Six months later the *Constitution* met the *Java* on the coast of Brazil, and crippled her so badly that she had to be destroyed. A year or two afterwards, near the island of Madeira, the *Constitution* won another brilliant victory over two English boats. Surely she deserved the name *Old Ironsides*, which the Americans fondly gave her.

Years afterward, when she was so old as to be unfit for service, it was proposed to break her to pieces, but the public, remembering her victories, raised a voice of protest. Oliver Wendell Holmes wrote a poem ending with the stanza:—

"Oh, better that her shattered hulk
Should sink beneath the wave;
Her thunders shook the mighty deep,
And there should be her grave;
Nail to the mast her holy flag,
Set every threadbare sail,
And give her to the God of storms,
The lightning and the gale!"

Finally Congress decided to preserve this good ship that all Americans still loved. She now lies in Charlestown navy yard, where she is yearly visited by thousands of people.

After the English gave up fighting us on water, they sent a large army to attack Baltimore. Captain Perry took an active part in the defense of that city, which was guarded by Fort McHenry. All day and night the British guns pounded the Fort, while thousands of eyes were anxiously fastened on the flag that waved over it. Just before daybreak the firing stopped and the light of dawn showed that the Stars and Stripes still waved. Francis Scott Key had been one of the eager watchers through the night, and now on an old piece of paper he wrote "The Star-Spangled Banner."

"On that shore dimly seen through the mists of the deep,
Where the foe's haughty host in dread silence reposes,
What is that which the breeze, o'er the towering steep,
As it fitfully blows, now conceals, now discloses?
Now it catches the gleam of the morning's first beam,
In full glory reflected, now shines in the stream;
'Tis the star-spangled banner; oh, long may it wave
O'er the land of the free, and the home of the brave."

In 1819 Perry was sent by the government to Venezuela. At one of the ports in the Orinoco at which he touched there was a plague of yellow fever. Just after leaving it the captain was stricken with the disease, and died at the age of thirty-four on his ship *Nonesuch*, as she reached the Island of Trinidad. There were many Englishmen at Trinidad, some of whom had fought in the battle of Lake Erie and remembered Perry's kindness while they were his prisoners. They buried him with civic and military honors, but in 1826 Congress sent a ship to bring his body home, and he now lies buried at Newport.

THOMAS MACDONOUGH—Born 1783—Died 1825

Oh, thus be it ever, when freemen shall stand
Between their loved home and the war's desolation.
Blest with victory and peace, may the heav'n-rescued land
Praise the power that made and preserved us a nation.
—KEY'S "The Star-Spangled Banner."

ANOTHER naval hero of the War of 1812 was Thomas Macdonough, born in Newcastle County, Delaware, of Scotch-Irish parents. At the age of seventeen he entered the navy as midshipman, and in 1803 sailed on the United States frigate *Philadelphia*, with the squadron sent against Tripoli. He was among those who accompanied Decatur on his perilous night errand of setting fire to this ship. Three years later, Macdonough was made lieutenant, and before he was thirty was master commander. In the War of 1812 he did as effective work on Lake Champlain as did Perry on Lake Erie.

In the Revolution the British planned to send troops down from Montreal to capture New York state, because that was the only way to cut off New England from the rest of the states. In this second war, the English laid another scheme for capturing New York, and also for getting possession of Detroit—at that time our strongest frontier town.

Accordingly the people of New York began to strengthen their northern and western forts. In the first summer of the war the British made an attack at Sackett's Harbor, but they were defeated and driven back into Canada. During the next year each side tried to inflict damage upon the other, but not much was accomplished.

Perry's triumph on Lake Erie so discouraged the British that they gave up trying to get possession of New York from the west. By this time the war between England and France had ended, so the British had plenty of men to bring to America. "Now," thought they, "we shall soon beat the Americans, and as a first step we will attack New York from the north and east." A force of British soldiers was therefore dispatched to Plattsburg to fight our troops on land, while a squadron was sent down to Lake Champlain to destroy our fleet under Thomas Macdonough.

Macdonough had studied the winds and currents on Lake Champlain, and knew exactly what was best to do. He anchored his fourteen vessels, in Plattsburg Bay, and waited for the British to attack. Theodore Roosevelt, in his book, "The Naval War of 1812," says of the beginning of the battle: "As the English squadron stood bravely in, young Macdonough, who feared his foes not at all, but his God a great deal, knelt for a moment with his officers on the quarter-deck; and then ensued a few minutes of perfect quiet, the men waiting with grim expectancy for the opening of the fight."

The British squadron consisted of sixteen vessels, with a force of guns and men much superior to Macdonough's. The first shot fired by the British struck a hencoop on Macdonough's flagship, the *Saratoga*. A rooster confined in the coop, instead of being frightened, flapped his wings, and crowed loudly, whereupon the men laughed and cheered, pronouncing this a good omen. At once Commander Macdonough opened fire, and thus began a struggle that lasted more than two hours. Macdonough worked as

hard as any of his sailors. Once, while he was loading a gun, part of the rigging of the ship was cut in two by the enemy's shots, and a piece fell on his head. For two or three minutes he lay senseless; then he leaped to his feet and went on with his work. Twice the *Saratoga* was on fire, but the genius of Macdonough saved the day.

As Macdonough had gone into battle with a prayer on his lips, he did not now forget to give thanks for his triumph to a power higher than his own. His dispatch to the secretary of the navy read, "The Almighty has been pleased to grant us a signal victory on Lake Champlain."

Again an entire British squadron had surrendered to an American naval officer under thirty years of age. After the battle, an Englishman said of his ship, "Our masts and yards were so shattered that they looked like bundles of matches, and our sails looked like bundles of rags."

Commander Macdonough showed great kindness to his prisoners. He allowed the officers to keep their swords, and had the wounded sailors cared for in the hospital on Crab Island. Besides a gold medal from Congress, he received in grateful remembrance of his services, a beautiful estate on Lake Champlain,

On land the armies at Plattsburg had waited for the sound of the ship's cannon as a signal to begin battle. While the struggle was at its height, a rider spurred his tired horse up to the lines and announced the defeat of the British on the lake. A mighty cheer went up from the American side. They redoubled their efforts, and in a short time the British troops were retreating to Canada.

The close of the war found Macdonough in enfeebled health. Congress gave him command of the Mediterranean squadron, but he grew steadily weaker. When news of his serious condition reached Washington, a ship was sent to bring him home; but he died ten days out from Gibraltar. It has been said of him: "He was as generous and humane as he was skilful and brave; one of the greatest of our sea captains, he has left a stainless name behind him."

ANDREW JACKSON—Born 1767—Died 1845

They'll rally to the fight,
In the stormy day and night,
In bonds that no cruel fate shall sever;
While the storm-winds waft on high,
Their ringing battle cry:
"Our country,—our country forever."
—STANTON'S "Answering the Roll Call."

A SANDY-HAIRED boy with a freckled face stood outside a log schoolhouse in a frontier town. His piercing blue eyes flamed with anger, for some of the older boys had played a trick on him; they had overloaded a gun, and then given it to the lad to fire. The result was as expected —the musket "kicked," and the boy was knocked to the ground. They had played the joke for the fun of arousing his quick temper, but they had not counted on what the temper might do. Andrew Jackson, for that was the lad's name, quickly sprang to his feet, and with blazing eyes shouted, "I will kill any boy that laughs!" The joke was over; not one of the boys dared to smile.

The time came when this uncouth "Andy" Jackson grew into an erect, graceful man, something over six feet tall, with the same bright eyes, abundant reddish hair, and fiery temper. He was willing to fight a duel with any one who quarreled with him. He was also a fearless Indian fighter, and noted for his honesty and patriotism.

Only two years before his birth his parents had come from Ireland, and in a tiny cabin near the border of South Carolina, Andrew first saw the light. The early death of his father compelled Mrs. Jackson to take her children to her brother's home, where she spun flax to earn money for their support. "Mischievous Andy" went barefoot to school, where it must be confessed he did not make the best use of his time.

He was thirteen years old when the Revolution was at its height, and the Carolinas were overrun by the British army. Young Andrew, with a party of Americans, was made prisoner by the English. He was nearly starved and brutally treated. One day he was ordered by a British officer to clean his mud-covered boots, but, smarting under the treatment he had received, young Jackson replied, "Sir, I am your prisoner, but not your slave." The infuriated officer struck the boy with his sword, and Jackson carried the marks of the wounds to the end of his life. In the wretched prison at Camden he fell a victim to smallpox. His mother heard of his condition and secured his release; then she carried him home and nursed him back to health. She was active in caring also for wounded soldiers. In the end she and two of her sons died from the hardships endured at that period.

We next see Andrew Jackson at the age of twenty, "a roaming, rollicking horse-loving young fellow," and a struggling lawyer; then, a year or two later, as a frontiersman crossing the mountains with a party of emigrants into the wilderness of Tennessee.

Jackson settled at Nashville and found plenty to do in the practice of law. It was not long before he was made a judge, and became famous for his success in maintaining law and order in that wild region. The governor would say, when lawlessness was reported, "Just inform Mr. Jackson. He will be sure to do his duty, and the offenders will be punished." This rough frontier life was full of danger. Judge Jackson often rode alone to the courthouse at Jonesboro, nearly two hundred miles away. He camped over night in the forest, defending himself from Indians and wild beasts. After one narrow escape he said: "A miss is as good as a mile. You see how near I can graze danger."

He helped draft the constitution of Tennessee when it was changed from a territory to a state, and he became one of its most influential citizens. Meantime he had made a fortune. The log cabin where he took his wife when they were first married was soon exchanged for the Hermitage, a mansion about ten miles from Nashville on a plantation of a thousand acres. Friends and strangers alike were welcome at the Hermitage. As Mr. and Mrs. Jackson had no children of their own, they adopted a nephew, and also a little Indian boy, who grew to be the delight of Jackson's heart.

When the War of 1812 broke out, there was in the West a powerful Indian chief, Tecumseh, who constantly urged his tribes to band together and drive the whites from the western territory. The Indian would say sorrowfully, "My people are being forced farther and farther into the forest, and all our land is slowly being taken by the palefaces."

So Tecumseh went from place to place in the West and South, stirring

the red men to action. When the people of Tennessee heard of this they said, "The fearless Judge Jackson is the man to lead the attack against the Indians." And Andrew Jackson, who had made such a good record as judge, now set out as soldier, with his arm in a sling as the result of a duel.

The Creek Indians had captured Fort Mimms in Alabama, about fifty miles from Mobile, and against them Jackson marched an army of over two thousand men, poorly clad and ill fed. Food was so scarce that one day a haggard soldier came to the commander and asked for something to eat. "I will never turn away a hungry man," said Jackson, "without dividing with him whatever I have," and he drew from his pocket a handful of acorns.

At last the time came when the soldiers declared, "We can stand this suffering no longer, and we intend to go home." Instantly up rose Jackson his thin face pale from suffering, his eyes blazing. "I will shoot the first man that takes a step forward," he said—and not one of them took the step.

No amount of hardship could turn him from his course. "These Indians," said he, "shall be taught that their massacre of five hundred white men, women, and children is not to be repeated." So he rallied his half-starved men, cheered them forward, and at the battle of Horseshoe Bend subdued the redskins so completely that trouble with them in the South was ended forever. "You can throw Andy Jackson, but he won't *stay* thrown," his schoolmates had said of him. And his soldiers found that, no matter what the obstacles were, this man wouldn't "stay thrown," and they respected and admired him accordingly.

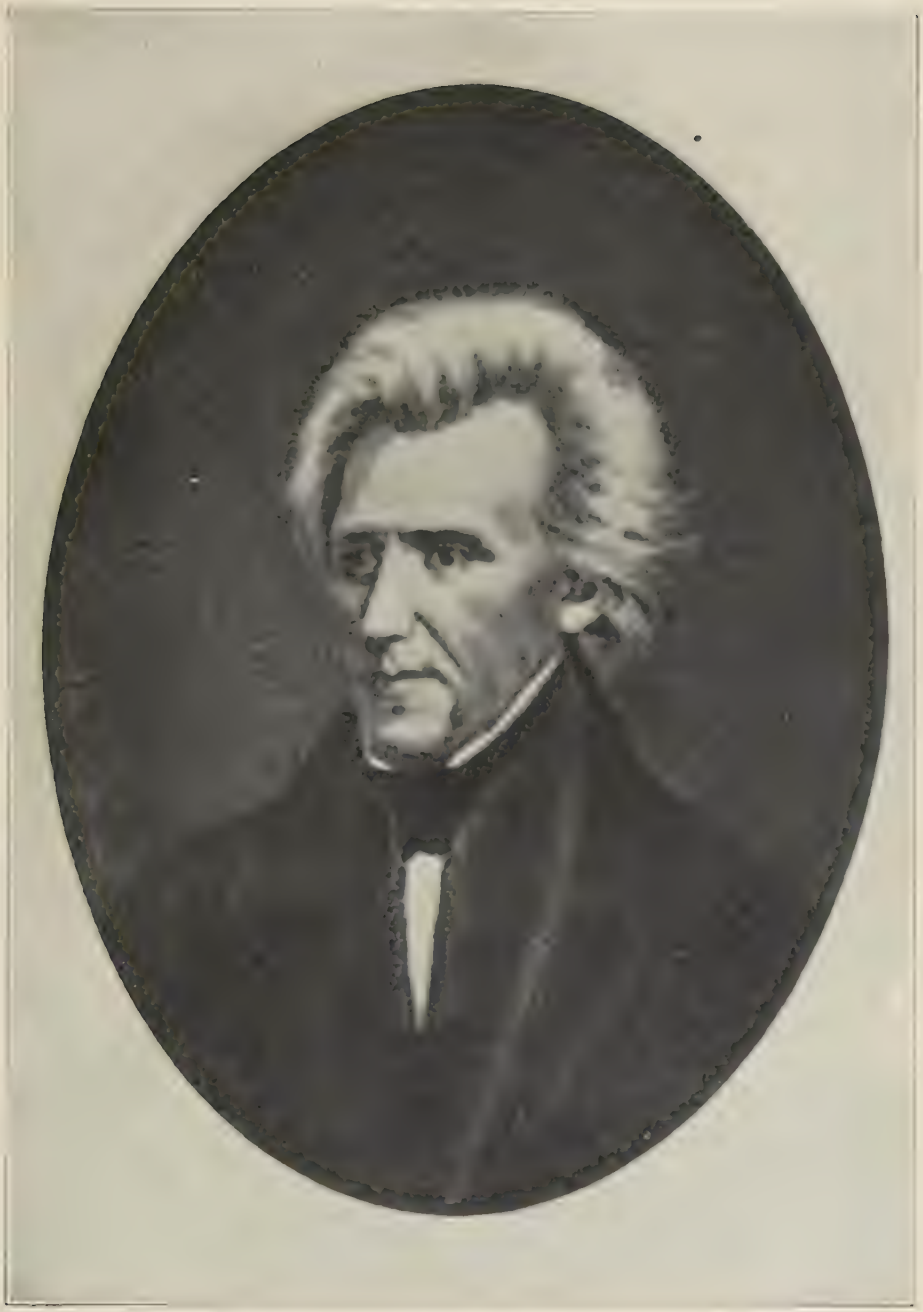
We now come to the greatest land battle of the War of 1812, the battle of New Orleans, and Judge Jackson, now General Jackson, is the hero. When the war between France and England ended with the defeat of the great Napoleon, the conquering redcoats sailed for America to put an end to the war here. But that ending was very different from what they had expected.

In March, 1814, a British force entered the city of Washington and burned several public buildings; then they attacked Baltimore, and we have already learned that this attack ended in failure. Their next movement was against New Orleans. The veteran English soldiers were full of confidence, when their warships anchored amid the broad lagoons of the Mississippi, their experienced generals fresh from splendid victories at home.

With what shouts of scorn would the redcoated English soldiers have greeted the sight of General Jackson's rough militia, could they have seen these troops march into New Orleans. Here were the stalwart fighters, who had driven the Indians from Fort Mimms, clad in buckskin hunting shirts and coonskin caps. Under their beloved "Old Hickory," as they affectionately called General Jackson, they had stormed the town of Pensacola, Florida, and driven the Spaniards and the British soldiers from its borders.

"Is not our force as large again as that of these raw Americans?" asked the British. But General Jackson was intrenched in a strong position. On January 8, 1815, with six thousand men against their twelve thousand, he met the British under General Pakenham. "Stand to your guns, boys, and see that every shot tells," shouted Jackson. For a frightful half hour there was rain of shot and shell.

Then brave General Pakenham was struck by a bullet and had to be car-



Andrew Jackson

ried from the field, while the redcoats ran from the fierce charge of the Americans. "Old Hickory" was completely victorious. Twenty-six hundred British lay dead or wounded upon the battlefield, and only eight Americans were killed. It was the worst defeat ever inflicted upon an English army.

Before the battle of New Orleans was fought, a treaty of peace between America and England had been signed at Ghent, Belgium; but the news did not reach America until after the victory. The result of this war was to make the Americans feel more strongly than ever the tie that bound them together as a nation; while it made Europe see the folly of thinking that the United States was too weak to resent an outrage.

During the war and afterward, the Spanish government failed to maintain order in Florida. This tract of land had come into the possession of the English after the French and Indian War, but had been given back to Spain by Great Britain in 1783. It was overrun by pirates and desperate characters, who joined with the Indians in attacking the settlers on the frontier of Georgia. Accordingly, in 1818, General Jackson was sent with a body of troops into the Spanish country, and practically took possession of the territory. A year later the United States purchased Florida from Spain for five million dollars.

Jackson's popularity continued to increase, and in 1829 he became the seventh President of the nation, the first to be chosen from the West.

There are few careers in American history more picturesque or more interesting than that of this boy and his rise from poverty to wealth and power. He was not a man to do things by halves, and he gave to the office of chief of the nation the same unwearying effort that he had given to fighting poverty, the Indians, and the English. At the end of his term he was reëlected; and when he left Washington, he was perhaps more popular than ever, though he had made bitter enemies. What he thought, he said; and when he believed a thing ought to be done, he did it, with absolute fearlessness of the consequence to himself.

In Jackson's administration Congress put a high tariff on foreign goods to protect northern manufacturers. South Carolina was opposed to this tax, for she had no factories to protect, and she wished to get as many European goods as possible in exchange for her cotton, rice, and tobacco. So the people of South Carolina declared, "We will not allow this tax to be put in operation in our state."

Now President Jackson, Daniel Webster, and thousands of other patriots saw the danger to the Union in this attitude of South Carolina. Webster was the greatest orator this country has produced, and his speeches had a wonderful influence. Among the best that he ever made was one on this South Carolina affair. It closed with words that found a ready echo in the hearts of his countrymen: "Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable."

Before this, President Jackson had been present at a public dinner in honor of Jefferson's birthday. Many men from South Carolina were at the banquet, and when the President rose to give a toast, all ears were strained to hear his words. They rang strong and clear: "Our Federal Union, it *must* be preserved." The enemies of the tariff were much disappointed, but the others heartily cheered the President's toast.

South Carolina, however, would not heed the warning, and insisted that she would pay no attention to the law, though all the other states were willing

to obey. When Jackson heard of this insubordination, his quick temper flamed. Did any state *dare* refuse to obey the laws of Congress? "The Union, it must, it *shall* be preserved!" he shouted. "Send for General Scott." He warned the people of South Carolina that any attempt to resist the law would be put down by arms, and he backed this statement by sending Lieutenant David Farragut with a naval force to Charleston harbor. In 1833, a tariff bill was passed fixing lower duties, and this compromise measure together with the threat of arms induced the people of South Carolina to yield.

Jackson spent the last years of his life at the Hermitage, surrounded by devoted relatives and friends. He died at the age of seventy-eight, and lies buried beside his wife in the fine old mausoleum in his garden. His faults were forgotten, because they had been overshadowed by his nobler qualities—patriotism, fearlessness, and integrity.

DE WITT CLINTON—Born 1769—Died 1828

Into thy dutiful life of uses
  Pour the music and weave the flowers;
With the song of birds and bloom of meadows
Lighten and gladden thy heart and ours.

Sing on! bring down, O lowland river,
  The joy of the hills to the waiting sea;
The wealth of the vales, the pomp of mountains,
  The breath of the woodlands bear with thee.

—WHITTIER'S "Revisited."

"PROGRESS" has always been the motto of America. "Let us open the great West, cut the timber, erect buildings, cultivate the ground," said the early settlers. "Fields of waving grain will reward our labor, and cities will spring up from the heart of the forests." A great statesman, Henry Clay, had urged the building of a national road west of the Alleghany Mountains, and we now come to work of even greater importance in the development of the country, the digging of the Erie Canal.

Robert Fulton had looked forward to the day when a chain of canals would bind our cities together, and sixteen years after the *Clermont* made its first trip up the Hudson the Erie Canal, connecting the Hudson River with the Great Lakes, was opened. The man who had worked hardest for the canal was De Witt Clinton.

Clinton was born at Little Britain, New York, of an excellent family. Young De Witt was graduated from Columbia College in 1786. Two years later he was admitted to the New York bar. He became interested in politics, and was elected a member of the state legislature. He worked hard for the passage of laws that would benefit the people of his state—laws that would help the farmers and manufacturers, improve sanitary conditions, and abolish slavery. But perhaps his chief interest was in navigation. "Our country is growing so fast," said he, "that it is essential to open better means of communication with the West."

In 1802 Clinton was elected to the United States Senate, but he resigned

to become mayor of New York City. As mayor he brought about many needed improvements; he helped to establish more schools and better ones; he tried to correct vice and relieve suffering; and he founded institutions of literature, art and science.

Clinton had been one of the first commissioners appointed in 1804 to survey a route for a canal across New York state. From that time he did not cease to urge the legislature to begin the building of the Erie Canal; but the War of 1812 stopped all public improvements. At last, in 1817, money was appropriated, and on the Fourth of July, at Rome, the first spadeful of earth was upturned.

This was a happy day for De Witt Clinton, now governor of the states, and he looked forward to the fulfillment of his cherished dream of bringing the West and the East more closely together. It took eight long years to complete the canal. Like every new venture that has benefited mankind, it met with much doubt and scoffing. The unbelievers called it the "Big Ditch" or "Clinton's Ditch," and said the state was wasting thousands of dollars with the upturning of these piles of clay, sand, and gravel.

It was a difficult undertaking. Most of the work was done by farmers living along the route. First a path sixty feet wide had to be cleared. Then the tree stumps and roots were pulled out by machines brought from Europe. Next a ditch was dug forty feet wide and four feet deep. The canal was three hundred and sixty-three miles long, and cost eight millions of dollars.

On a pleasant morning in October, 1825, a vast crowd gathered at Buffalo and wended its way to the lake shore. A rush of water into the "ditch" was the signal for the boom of cannon, and all along the Mohawk and Hudson valleys cannon answered cannon, until, in this way, the news was carried to New York City that Lake Erie and the Hudson River were mingling in a great water course from Buffalo to the sea! There was no telegraph or telephone to convey the tidings, but the cannons delivered the message in an hour and twenty minutes.

From Buffalo to New York the excitement spread. If Governor Clinton had been proud to see the earth broken for the beginning of the canal, what must he have felt now that the great task was finished!

On the barge *Seneca Chief*, drawn by four large white horses on the "towpath," Clinton and a party of distinguished friends made their first canal trip. The *Seneca Chief* was followed by several other gaily decorated canal boats. One of these, *Noah's Ark*, had on board two eagles, two deer, a bear, birds, and two Indian boys, to show the people of New York City "the products of the West."

All along the shores from Buffalo to Albany, crowds cheered the travelers. At the capital, horses were exchanged for a steam tow, and the gay flotilla passed down the Hudson amid shouts from watchers along the bank. At the end of eight days the triumphal procession reached New York. Flags were flying over the city, bells were rung, and the residents hastened to do the visitors honor.

More boats joined the little fleet, which now put out to sea. Just beyond Sandy Hook, Governor Clinton poured into the Atlantic Ocean two kegs of Lake Erie water brought from Buffalo. "Hurrah! the Great Lakes and the Atlantic Ocean are united!" shouted the crowd. Then they came back to the city, and ended the celebration with parades, banquets, and fireworks.

The building of the Erie Canal was the greatest public work that had

been undertaken in America. Passengers could now be carried, and farm produce sent to market, much more easily and cheaply by water than by land. Travelers could go from New York to Albany by steamboat, then board a canal boat, and arrive in Buffalo in less than a week. The fare on these packet boats from New York to Buffalo was eighteen dollars. This was considered a very quick and cheap method of traveling. From Buffalo a steamboat on Lake Erie would carry passengers still farther west.

The new canal brought all the wheat, corn, and other farm products from the West to the eastern markets. Freight that had cost one hundred dollars a ton to transport in wagons could now be carried for ten dollars a ton. A farmer whose wheat had yielded him only thirty cents a bushel, on account of the great expense of getting it to market, now received a dollar a bushel. Where were the men who had laughed at Clinton's Ditch?

Towns sprang up along the route of the canal, for people in central New York no longer had to rely on stagecoaches to get from place to place. Rochester, Syracuse, and Utica grew rapidly.

The Erie Canal increased emigration from New England to the Northwest, and so hastened the growth of New York, that it soon became the Empire State.

ELIAS HOWE—Born 1819—Died 1867

Necessity—thou best of peacemakers,
As well as surest prompter of invention.
—SCOTT'S "Peveril of the Peak."

IF all women were to vote on the invention that has been of the most service to them there is little doubt that the decision would go to the sewing machine, the product of the fertile mind of Elias Howe. Although others made machines that took the place of human fingers it remained for Howe with his genius and especially his persistency in the face of tremendous obstacles to make the machine a practical reality adopted by the world.

Born of sturdy New England stock Howe was one of a large family in the village of Spencer, Massachusetts. He had two inventive uncles and in their native town there is today a handsome monument erected to the memory of the three Howes.

At the age of six young Elias was working in a factory stitching teeth into cards for cotton mills. He went to the village school in the winters and the rest of the year found him on a farm or in a mill hard at work. He early acquired the discipline of sticking to a task until it was done, and he came to have a bull-dog like grasp on a thing that would not let go once he had started.

As a child he was lively and full of play and always had plenty of chums. As a man he was sociable and friendly and always managed to have a friend to stand by him in the times of trouble and discouragement.

At twelve he went to live with a farmer, but he soon returned to resume work in his father's mills where he

stayed until he was sixteen when he went to Lowell to work there in the mills. The panic of 1837 closed every mill in town and he went on to Cambridge, but he did not find things to his liking and he went on into Boston. Here he found better wages in the shop of one Ari Davis, an eccentric man, who made and repaired chronometers and surveying supplies, and was somewhat of an inventor as well.

This was an interesting atmosphere and Howe enjoyed the time here. One day a man came in with questions about a knitting machine that he was trying to invent. "Why don't you make a sewing machine," said Davis. "That is impossible," replied the man. "Nonsense, I can make a sewing machine myself," returned Davis. "Well, if you do you will have an independent fortune," said the other.

These remarks fell on attentive ears. Howe said to himself, "I may be the man to invent the sewing machine, and win a fortune." From that day the current of his life was changed.

Elias Howe had married and with a wife and family he was finding it hard to get along on nine dollars a week. Often he watched his wife plying her busy needle and meditated on what a boon a sewing machine would be. He brooded over the idea until 1843 when he actually set to building his invention. At first he tried to imitate hand sewing and only after a long while did he decide that it was not necessary to have the needle go entirely through the cloth; the eye was put near the point and the lock-stitch machine was designed.

Lacking funds to carry out his invention, Howe found a George Fisher, who was willing to board the Howes and to furnish $500 in return for a half interest in the sewing machine. Early in 1845 the machine sewed evenly and smoothly. Suits of clothes were sewed on this machine and the stitches outlasted the goods. There is today no machine free from debt to this first model of Elias Howe's.

Although a good sewing machine was ready, one that could excel five fast seamstresses in competition, still there was no demand for it. Tailors and garment-workers were actively opposed to this new machine which they said would injure them. No one in the country would have anything to do with it, and Howe finally sold his machine as a last resort to a William Thomas in England and all he received was $1,217. It is a long and a sad story of how the inventor went to England, meeting with rebuff and failure and finally returning to New York. As he walked up Broadway he had just sixty cents in his pockets and nothing to do but to go to work in a machine shop. His wife died and he had to borrow a suit of clothes to attend her funeral. The outlook was indeed black.

About this time word came that in England the Howe machine had been slightly changed and put on the market with no credit to its originator. The fighting spirit of Howe revived and he prosecuted his case and won out and received heavy royalties. In this country he succeeded in putting his machine on the market and soon he was getting over $200,000 a year.

A patriot of the highest type, Howe gave generously to the Civil War needs. He raised the 17th regiment of Connecticut and presented every officer with a horse. Elected as colonel, he refused the honor and served faithfully in the ranks as a private. His health declined, due to his strenuous and hard life and at the early age of 48 he passed away at the home of his daughter in Brooklyn.

HENRY CLAY — Born 1777 — Died 1852

I love thine inland seas,
Thy groves of giant trees,
  Thy rolling plains;
Thy rivers' mighty sweep,
Thy mystic canyons deep,
Thy mountains wild and steep,
  All thy domains;

Thy silver eastern strands,
Thy Golden Gate that stands
  Fronting the West;
Thy flowery Southland fair,
Thy sweet and crystal air—
O Land beyond compare,
  Thee I love best!

—VAN DYKE'S "Additional Stanzas for America."

DID you ever hear of the Mill Boy of the Slashes? It is a queer-sounding name, but easy to understand when one knows about the childhood of Henry Clay. The swampy, lowland district in Hanover County, Virginia, where he was born, was known as the Slashes. His father was a clergyman, who died when his little son was three years old. Henry received his early education in a log schoolhouse, and after school hours helped at farm work. One of his duties was to ride a horse to mill, and carry bags of farm produce to be ground. Thus the barefoot boy came to be known as the Mill Boy of the Slashes.

He was an exceedingly bright lad, and at the age of ten became clerk in a store in Richmond. Four years later his stepfather procured a position for him in the office of the clerk of the Court of Chancery. Chancellor Whyte took a deep interest in the boy and encouraged him to study law.

In a few years Henry had grown to be a tall young man, with agreeable manners, and was regarded by the well-known men in his community as a youth of unusual promise. At the age of twenty he was licensed to practice law. When he was an old man he said, "I remember with what delight I received my first fifteen-shilling fee."

He crossed the mountains and settled at Lexington, Kentucky, in order that he might be near his mother. From the first his success was remarkable; his wonderful eloquence attracted attention, and he had made hosts of friends.

Clay had been in Lexington only two years, when he married a daughter of a prominent, wealthy gentleman. He joined a debating society and quickly won the reputation of being "one of the most fluent and eloquent speakers." He was ever ready to help those in trouble, and gladly gave his assistance, without charge, to clients who needed aid but were too poor to pay fees. Before many years passed he had saved enough to buy several hundred acres of land near Lexington and to build a fine house. He called the place Ashland, because of the magnificent ash trees that shaded his lawns.

The Mill Boy of the Slashes became the most popular man in Kentucky.

Early in his career he had become interested in politics, and was elected a member of the state legislature. This youth, who had captivated his companions in the debating club, now held all older hearers spellbound by his eloquence, and his fame as an orator spread far and wide. From the state legislature it was a short path to the United States Senate, and here his eloquence and good sense made him a power. He was the youngest man who had ever been sent to the Senate.

When, prior to the War of 1812, America became aroused by the seizure of her sailors by the British, Clay was among the most ardent of those who urged Congress to resist by force. "Let us arm men to defend our beloved land," he cried, "and let us build such a navy as shall punish England for daring to attack our vessels." The time was not then ripe for public sentiment to voice, as it does today, such words as those of Admiral Evans: "It was borne in upon me that the worst use you could put a navy to was fighting, and the best, keeping the peace."

After the war Clay was one of the committee sent to the Netherlands to meet British representatives for the purpose of drafting a treaty of peace. When this was signed he went to London to negotiate a treaty of commerce with Great Britain. In both missions he was highly successful.

In Wheeling, West Virginia, there is a monument erected to Clay's memory, on which the inscription calls him "The Father of the National Road." He earned this name by persuading Congress to build a public highway from Cumberland, Maryland, through Wheeling, Columbus, and Indianapolis to Vandalia, Illinois. Progress through the West was being retarded because there was no good road over which emigrants could travel. The National Road was the first well-built highway west of the Alleghany Mountains.

Clay was forty-two years old when there arose the gravest excitement over the slavery question that the United States had known. The territory of Missouri applied for admission as a state. The members of Congress from the North said, "If Missouri is admitted, it must be as a *free* state." The South declared, "It shall have the right to hold negroes as slaves."

We have already learned how the first slaves were brought to Virginia to work on the tobacco plantations. Gradually slavery spread throughout the colonies, but just before Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin, it had about died out. As a result of this invention, however, slavery was revived in the South; for, as more and more cotton was raised, more workers were needed, and not enough white men could be found.

But the wisest men in both North and South knew that slavery could have no place in a free country. Years before, southerners like Washington, Jefferson, and Henry had spoken strongly against it, and had earnestly hoped that it would soon die out. Clay too, hated slavery, and in one of his speeches declared: "I come from a slave state, but no earthly power could induce me to vote for slavery, the deepest stain upon the character of our country."

When the question of admitting Missouri as a slave state came up in 1820, the whole country was deeply stirred. The North had no need of slaves, but the South felt that her industrial progress depended upon her being able to keep negroes in slavery. It happened that at this same time the territory of Maine also was applying for admittance into the Union. As the feeling between North and South grew more bitter, Clay gave his un-

wearied efforts to having a resolution known as the Missouri Compromise agreed upon by Congress. By this compromise, Maine was admitted as a free state, and Missouri as a slave state; but with the understanding that all the rest of the territory west of the Mississippi River, north and west of Missouri, should be free.

This did not satisfy Clay any better than it did thousands of others, but he felt that it was the only way of settling the dispute, and for the time both North and South were pacified. After that Clay was called the Great Peacemaker.

In 1832 Clay was nominated as a candidate for the presidency, but although for more than twenty years he was talked of as a possible President, he never received the election. It is doubtful, however, if any man in the United States ever had greater influence in the affairs of the country.

When Andrew Jackson was elected President, Clay left Washington and retired to his Ashland estate to enjoy the peace and quiet of country life. But the vexed question of slavery would not be put down. The Missouri Compromise had merely delayed its settlement. By 1850 California was petitioning for admission to the Union, and once more bitter debates over the negro question disturbed the country. It seemed as if the Union must be dissolved. In the words of Thomas Jefferson, the threatening discussion of this whole sad story rang "like a fire bell in the night."

Clay loved the Union, and he strove to bring about another compromise. Though now seventy-three years old, he never thought of himself. He did not pause to rest, but continued to speak publicly, even when so feeble that he had to be helped to the platform. He knew that he could make others feel the enthusiasm he felt himself. "All now is uproar, confusion, and menace to the existence of the Union, and to the happiness and safety of the people," said he. "Let us quiet this storm and save the Union. Let us have peace by compromise; let each side yield something to the other."

The famous California Compromise was adopted by Congress in 1850. Again Clay had helped to preserve the Union, as he had done thirty years before. Under the Compromise of 1850, certain concessions were made to the North, and others to the South. The most important were the admission of California as a free state to satisfy the North; to satisfy the South, the passage of the Fugitive Slave Law, by which southerners could more easily catch runaway slaves. People hoped that the differences between North and South were now settled.

When Henry Clay died in Washington, two years later, America lost one of her ablest statesmen and greatest orators, a man devoted to what he believed to be for the best interests of his country. "I had rather be right than be President," he once said, and every one knew that he meant it.

DANIEL WEBSTER—Born 1782—Died 1852

In toil he lived; in peace he died;
When life's full cycle was complete,
Put off his robes of power and pride,
And laid them at his Master's feet.
—HOLMES'S "Birthday of Daniel Webster."

ONE winter day many years ago, a father and son were traveling along a New England road. The man was a strong, able farmer, who had seen hard service in the Revolution, and had been one of Washington's trusted sentinels when it was found that Arnold was a traitor. The boy, a lad of fourteen, was tall, slim, and delicate. Had you met him on that February day, you would have been attracted by his remarkable eyes, dark, piercing, fascinating. His hair was black and straight, his cheek bones high, his complexion swarthy. The pair were on their way from Phillips Academy, Exeter, New Hampshire, to their home in a town near by.

The youth never forgot that journey, for before it was over the father announced that, in spite of poverty, the boy should have a college education. "The very idea thrilled my whole frame," said Webster, when he had grown to be one of America's greatest statesmen. "I remember that I was quite overcome. The thing appeared to me so high, the expense and sacrifice it was to cost my father so great, I could only press his hand and shed tears."

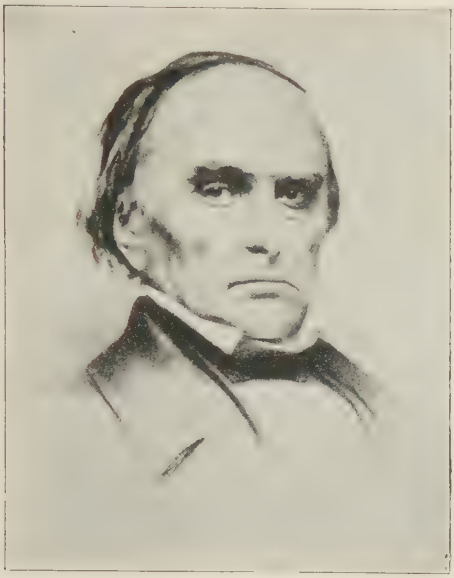
Daniel Webster was born at Salisbury—now Franklin—New Hampshire, in 1782, the ninth of ten children. "I do not remember," he once said, "when or by whom I was taught to read; because I cannot and never could recollect a time when I could not read the Bible. I suppose that I was taught by my mother or by my elder sister. We had so few books that to read them once or twice was nothing. We thought they were all to be got by heart." Although they were poor, Mr. and Mrs. Webster were determined that their children should be educated. The little group daily trudged to school, walking in winter from two to three miles through the snow to reach the village schoolhouse.

Daniel was not a strong boy, but he had a musical voice of remarkable richness. Farmers would stop him on the road to hear him recite passages from the Bible, or from books of poetry. He was always deeply interested in his father's stories of George Washington and the war, and he early came to love and know about his country. When only eight years old, he saw for sale at a shop a cotton handkerchief with the Constitution of the United States printed upon it. Daniel saved his pennies until he had twenty-five; then he bought the handkerchief and studied the Constitution until he could repeat it from beginning to end.

It was a happy day when the little country school was exchanged for Phillips Academy. "I believe I made tolerable progress," said he afterward; "but there was one thing I could not do—I could not make a declamation. Many a piece did I commit to memory, but when my name was called, and I saw all eyes turned to my seat, I could not raise myself from it. When the occasion was over I wept bitter tears of mortification." A sad beginning for one of the world's greatest orators.

Webster was nineteen years old when he was graduated from Dart-

mouth College. He began to study law but in order to secure money he accepted a school at Fryeburg Maine.



DANIEL WEBSTER

But a man of Webster's remarkable powers could not long be satisfied with such a narrow field. He found his way to Boston, finished his law course, and returned to his native state to practice. At the Portsmouth bar he quickly gained distinction, and it was not long before he moved to Boston. His fame increased until every one requiring a lawyer tried to engage his service. The youth who had been glad to go to Fryeburg for three hundred and fifty dollars a year, now found himself with an annual income of twenty thousand dollars.

At the age of thirty-one he was elected a member of the House of Representatives, and took his seat in Congress with Henry Clay, John C. Calhoun, and others from among the ablest men in the country. He was admitted to practice in the Supreme Court of the United States, and in 1827 was elected to the Senate.

"Wherever he went men turned to gaze at him, and he could not enter a room without having every eye fastened upon him. His face was striking, both in form and color. The eyebrow, the eye, and the dark, deep socket in which it glowed were full of power. His smile was beaming, warming, fascinating, lighting up his whole face like a sudden sunrise. His voice was rich, deep, and strong filling the largest space without effort and when under excitement rising and swelling into a violence of sound like the roar of a tempest." At the unveiling of the Bunker Hill Monument Webster delivered a great address. It is said that fifteen thousand persons heard every word that he uttered.

After he became senator, he steadily gained in influence. Twice he was made secretary of state. His love for the Union was as deep as that of Jackson or Clay, and that it *must* be preserved, was his motto, as it was theirs. We know that South Carolina insisted that she had the right to refuse to pay the tax on foreign goods. That was putting the right of the state first and that of the Union second. Finally Senator Hayne of South Carolina made such a strong speech in the Senate in favor of State Rights that people doubted if even Webster could reply to his arguments.

Webster's "Reply to Hayne" is one of the greatest speeches in the English language. Excitement was at fever heat, for the controversy over State Rights had been long and bitter. When the people of Washington knew that Webster was to make his reply, the Senate chamber was crowded to the doors. Even the members of the House left their seats and came to the Senate. "By the blessing of Heaven," said Webster to a friend before he began, "the people of this country

shall learn this day, before the sun goes down, what I understand the Constitution to be." From the days of the cotton handkerchief its words had been burned into his heart.

Since the time of Patrick Henry no address had so stirred the hearts of Americans. For four hours Webster held his hearers spellbound. Nothing like the speech or the spectacle had before been heard or seen in the Senate of the United States. The impressive figure of the orator towered to its full height. His wonderful eyes burned with splendid luster, while his rich voice and matchless eloquence swayed the immense audience. Every newspaper in the land published the speech; it was printed in circular form; it was read throughout the length and breadth of America, and it swept the country like wild-fire. Its effect was deep and lasting, and rekindled patriotism throughout the North.

Every schoolboy knows, or should know, parts of this celebrated "Reply to Hayne," and he should have stamped in his memory its closing words, "Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable." He should be able to recite it, as did the boys in Webster's day, the lads who not many years afterward marched in their blue uniforms to defend the Republic, with the ringing words of Daniel Webster on their lips.

When the great orator visited England with his wife and daughter, he found the doors of the highest in the land opened to him, for his great fame had gone before him. His striking personal appearance made him a figure of mark. "There goes a king," said some one who met him in the street. "Good Heavens! he is a small cathedral in himself," said another. The truth is that he was only five feet ten inches in height, and never weighed two hundred pounds, yet he was so forceful and commanding that he was spoken of as a giant."

From the excitement of the Senate and court room Webster loved to retire to his estate at Marshfield, Massachusetts. He called himself the "farmer of Marshfield," and in the quiet joy of orchard and trout stream, or listening to the murmur of the ocean across the marshes, he could forget the pressing cares of office.

There was no period in which this great statesman did nobler service for his country than in the last three years of his life. The question of admitting California as a free state in 1850 threatened, as we know, to sever the Union; for while the North favored it, the South opposed it. Webster believed, with Clay, that the only way to preserve peace was by compromise, but his friends in the North hated slavery so intensely that they could not bear to give in on any point, and they were especially opposed to the Fugitive Slave Law.

When Webster joined his influence with Clay's northerners said bitterly "Webster has forgotten his principles, and is trying to get southern votes to elect him President." No man in the United States was better fitted for the presidency than Daniel Webster and he had a right to expect that the people would elect him; but the Fugitive Slave Law had cost him so many friends that he never became President. Though a storm of abuse was hurled at his head, he stood firm in his conviction that, at that time, nothing but a compromise could save the Republic.

Throughout his life, and with all his extraordinary power, he had labored to preserve the Union. Yet he could not prevent the terrible war between the North and the South which came a few years after his death. But the unfailing love of country that breathed

from every word of his great speeches taught a lesson that was not forgotten in the moment of peril. How America mourned his death, how the heart of the nation yearned for his voice and help in the sad days of the Civil War Whittier has told:—

"Wise men and strong we did not lack,
But still with memory turning back,
In the dark hours we thought of thee,
And thy lone grave beside the sea."

Webster's love for the flag lasted as long as life itself. In the last weeks he was unable to sleep except for an hour or two at a time. From the window he could see a boat riding at anchor, and he loved to watch the Stars and Stripes that floated over it. Even at night by having a lantern placed on the boat he could see the waving of the flag, and it was one of the last things on which his eyes rested.

He died in September, 1852, and at his own request public ceremonies at his funeral were omitted. He sleeps in the old Colonial Burying Ground at Marshfield, near the sea that he loved.

SAMUEL F. B. MORSE—Born 1791—Died 1872

What saith the herald of the Lord?
"The world's long stride is done;
Close wedded by that mystic cord,
Its continents are one.

"And one in heart, as one in blood,
Shall all her people be;
The hands of human brotherhood
Are clasped beneath the sea."
—WHITTIER'S "The Cable Hymn."

WE have grown so used to the telegraph and telephone that we no longer think them remarkable. We forget that there was a time when we did not know how to "harness electricity," and make it serve us.

We are apt to forget too, that these great inventions were made only after years of patient toil and experiment, and that we owe a debt of gratitude to the men who sacrificed time, strength, and money to perfect them. Samuel F. B. Morse, the inventor of the electric telegraph, labored, slept, cooked, and ate in one small room. He often suffered for lack of food while he was working out his great scheme, which has been of such untold benefit to mankind.

Morse was born at Charlestown, Massachusetts. His father was poor, but he managed to give his sons a college education. At the age of four Samuel was sent to "Old Ma'am Rand's school." This elderly lady, lame and unable to leave her chair, kept order with the aid of a long rattan stick, with which she could reach to every part of the room. When he was seven the boy was sent to school at Andover, where he remained until he entered Yale. He was graduated from college before he was twenty.

Morse spent a great deal of time in drawing, and became so skilful that he helped to pay his college expenses by painting portraits. He had become greatly interested in electrical

experiments at Yale, but painting seemed to offer a surer means of earning his living, so with his artist friend Washington Allston, he went to London and became a pupil of Benjamin West.

After Morse returned to America, he supported himself for several years by his art. He wrote to his friend Allston, "I am painting from morning till night, and have many new patrons."

While returning from a second visit to Europe the artist thought out the idea of the telegraph. One day on the steamer there was a discussion regarding electricity, and some one stated that the length of the wire made no difference in the passage of the electric current. "Then," thought Morse, "if electricity can go ten miles without stopping, I can make it go around the globe."

He had accepted the position of Professor of Fine Arts at New York University, but soon resigned to give all his time to making an alphabet of marks and dots, and to working out his system of telegraphy.

The inventor, now more than forty years old, found that he still retained his youthful enthusiasm for electrical experiments. He took a little room at the corner of Nassau and Beekman streets, and in this "studio, workshop, bedroom, and kitchen" labored day and night. He spared time from his experiments for only enough painting lessons to keep the wolf from the door. He had little food besides bread and tea. One day a pupil said, "I am sorry, Professor Morse, but I cannot pay you until next week." "I shall die of starvation before that time," grimly answered the inventor, whereupon the student found the needed money. On one occasion Mr. Morse was without food for twenty-four hours. At another time he wrote to a friend, "I am without a farthing in my pocket, and have to borrow even for my meals."

For twelve years the patient inventor worked at his task. When his invention was perfected, after many delays and discouragements, a patent was procured in 1840. Alfred Vail, a wealthy young man, became deeply interested in Mr. Morse's ideas, and gave him much help. At last the House of Representatives passed a bill appropriating thirty thousand dollars for a trial of the telegraph from Washington to Baltimore. This bill could not become a law until it had been passed by the Senate.

Mr. Morse waited in the Senate chamber on the last night of the session until nearly midnight; then he left disheartened. Imagine his surprise when, the next morning, a young woman said to him, "I congratulate you, Professor." "And for what, my dear young friend?" asked the inventor. "On the passage of your bill," she replied. The good news was indeed true; the Senate had passed the bill just after Mr. Morse left the chamber.

The lady who made this happy announcement was Miss Annie Ellsworth, daughter of the commissioner of patents, a friend of Mr. Morse. Tears filled the inventor's eyes. "You shall dictate the first message to be sent over the wire," said he.

Accordingly, on May 24, 1844, Miss Ellsworth wrote the first words flashed over the telegraph in America. She chose the biblical quotation, "What hath God wrought?"

The doubters who called Morse "crazy brained," and insisted that he was fit only for a lunatic asylum, had to admit that God had indeed wrought a marvelous thing through this patient man.

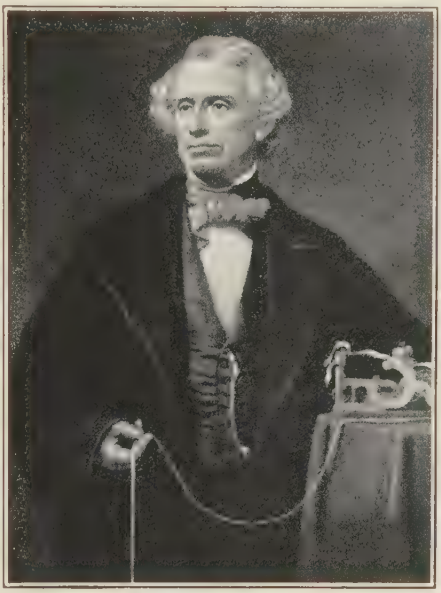
By the aid of the telegraph people found that they could send messages in a very short time to friends hundreds of miles away. No longer must news be sent from Buffalo to New York by the boom of cannon. Instead of one hour and twenty minutes, the message would travel across the state with lightning rapidity.

Up to this time there had been various methods of signalling over long distances. One was by lighting beacon fires on the hills, another by the waving of flags, and a third by using the semaphore. This last was a French invention, consisting of an upright post with a movable horizontal bar, which could be placed at any angle. On each end of the bar was a smaller arm, and by changing the angles of the bars, signals representing words, numbers and sentences, could be given. The semaphores were placed on high towers, four or five miles apart. In a thick fog or a blinding snow they were, of course, quite useless.

Another method of communication and one still used by Indians, is to reflect the rays of the sun by a mirror. By the use of mirrors placed on high elevations, messages have been exchanged between stations ninety miles apart. Now the telegraph was to take the place of all these methods.

The first piece of general news to be sent over the telegraph wire was that Silas Wright had refused to become a candidate for Vice President. The convention in Baltimore that had nominated Wright would not believe that Mr. Morse had sent news of the nomination to Mr. Wright at Washington, and received a reply. The convention, therefore, sent a committee all the way to Washington to investigate. These gentlemen found that the report was true; the telegraph had done in a few minutes all that they had done by traveling seventy miles.

Everybody now began to believe in the telegraph, and from this time business was revolutionized. Merchants no longer had to wait days or weeks for letters; all important matters could be settled by telegraph.



SAMUEL F. B. MORSE

Mr. Morse had honors and wealth heaped upon him even by the countries across the sea, for not only America, but also Europe, adopted the telegraph. He was able to have a beautiful country home on the banks of the Hudson, where distinguished persons were often entertained, and he also had a city residence in New York. When he died, at the age of eighty-one, the world mourned his loss. He was the greatest inventor of his age, a generous, noble, truehearted man, and a faithful friend.

CYRUS W. FIELD — Born 1819 — Died 1892

If thou do ill, the joy fades, not the pain,
If well, the pain doth fade, the joy remains.
—HERBERT'S "Church Porch."

THE honor of pushing the cable to successful completion in the face of seemingly impossible barriers belongs to Cyrus W. Field. He had the vision, the energy and the dogged persistence to carry forward this great enterprise that is now such an important part of the every day life of industry.

He was one of seven boys born in the home of a Massachusetts minister. The Field boys were full of fun and the story is told of how one Sunday morning one of the boys marched up the aisle in church carrying a rat-trap and wearing a look of complete innocence. The father had said, "Whenever you find that trap, bring it to me at once," and the son had taken him very literally.

At fifteen we find Cyrus in the famous old New York store of A. T. Stewart, and before he was twenty-one, a partner in another store. A business failure occurred and Field gave all he had in partial settlement of the claims of the creditors. He went into business for himself and in ten years had amassed a fortune of over $250,000, which in terms of today would represent at least a million. He repaid all the balances due the old creditors of his previous business and gave them all seven per cent interest.

The question of laying a telegraph wire under the ocean to connect the two continents had long been discussed. Mr. Field became deeply interested, and in 1857 wire was laid from Newfoundland to Ireland. One morning in August, Mr. Field announced that signals had passed under the Atlantic.

The country went wild with rejoicing. Bells were rung, cannons boomed, flags waved, and there were parades and fireworks throughout the land. It was not until the next year, however, that the cable could be made to work satisfactorily. Then, on August 17, 1858, there flashed the message: "Europe and America are united by telegraph. Glory to God in the highest; on earth peace; good will toward men."

Mr. Field was now praised as the world's benefactor. But in less than a month communications ceased; the cable would not work. Yet Mr. Field, who had sunk his fortune in this venture, did not despair. He waited for seven years, until the Civil War was ended. Then, in 1865, a new company was formed, a new cable twenty-three hundred miles long was made ready, and the *Great Eastern*, then the largest vessel in the world, set sail with four thousand tons of cable wire. Yet another disappointment was at hand. More than a thousand miles from the starting point the cable parted, and, although days were spent in an effort to grapple it, all attempts failed.

The next year, however, saw the successful completion of the submarine cable. From that day to this nations have exchanged messages across the sea with far more ease, and in much less time, than was required for the New England colonies to communicate with each other in early days.

PETER COOPER — Born 1791 — Died 1883

O what a glory doth this world put on
For him who, with a fervent heart, goes forth
Under the bright and glorious sky, and looks
On duties well performed, and days well spent.
—LONGFELLOW'S "Autumn."

IN the latter days of the eighteenth century New York was a small straggling town of but a few thousand souls. There lived John Cooper, a stalwart man and one not usually called a dreamer of dreams. He came of a stock that believed in Divine guidance, however, and on the occasion of the birth of his fifth child he acted on that belief. Peter Cooper tells the incident best in his own words:

"My father used to tell me how he came to call me Peter. When I was born he became strongly impressed with the idea that I would some day have more than ordinary fame, and what name he should give me was a matter of serious and frequent thought. While walking on Broadway one dark night it seemed as though a voice spoke to him in a clear and distinct manner: 'Call him Peter!' That seeming voice settled my name. My father felt that I was to be of great good in some way; and his remarks, with my mother's, concerning their aspirations and hopes for me acted as a stimulus and made me anxious to fulfill their wishes, and not disappoint them."

The new name, one unfamiliar to the family, symbolized the break between the old and the new and produced a profound impression on young Peter. It gave the boy a belief in his mission and a desire to discover it.

Peter Cooper was first of all a good American, secondly, a lover of his fellow men, and thirdly, a seeker after the welfare of his fellow Americans with whom he could sympathize because of the struggles of his own earlier life. He has classified his long life of over ninety years into three parts, First there was a period of thirty years in which he was getting a start in life. The next thirty were spent in getting the means to carry out his plans. The last thirty were devoted to the execution of his plans.

The hatter's son did not stay with his father's business long. At an early age we find him apprenticed to a coach-maker for a period of four years at the modest wage of $25 a year and board. From this he paid all his obligations and managed to save a little. During his early years we find his inventive genius cropping out. While with the coach-builder Cooper invented a machine for mortising hubs.

Next he went into a cloth-shearing business and invented machinery to improve the process. He went into the furniture business and, in fact, engaged in a surprising variety of occupations, striving to better himself each time.

He went into the glue business and made a success of it and through over fifty years his name stands associated with that industry. He engaged in the iron business with such distinction as to receive the "Bessemer gold medal" from the Iron and Steel Institute of Great Britain in 1879.

He watched the development of the locomotive in England and built with his own hands the first passenger locomotive ever seen in this country and installed it successfully on the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad. You may see this today, for it is carefully preserved by this railroad.

When the Atlantic cable enterprise was in difficulties, Peter Cooper came to the rescue and never wavered in his faith and in his investments until that great invention was a practical reality.

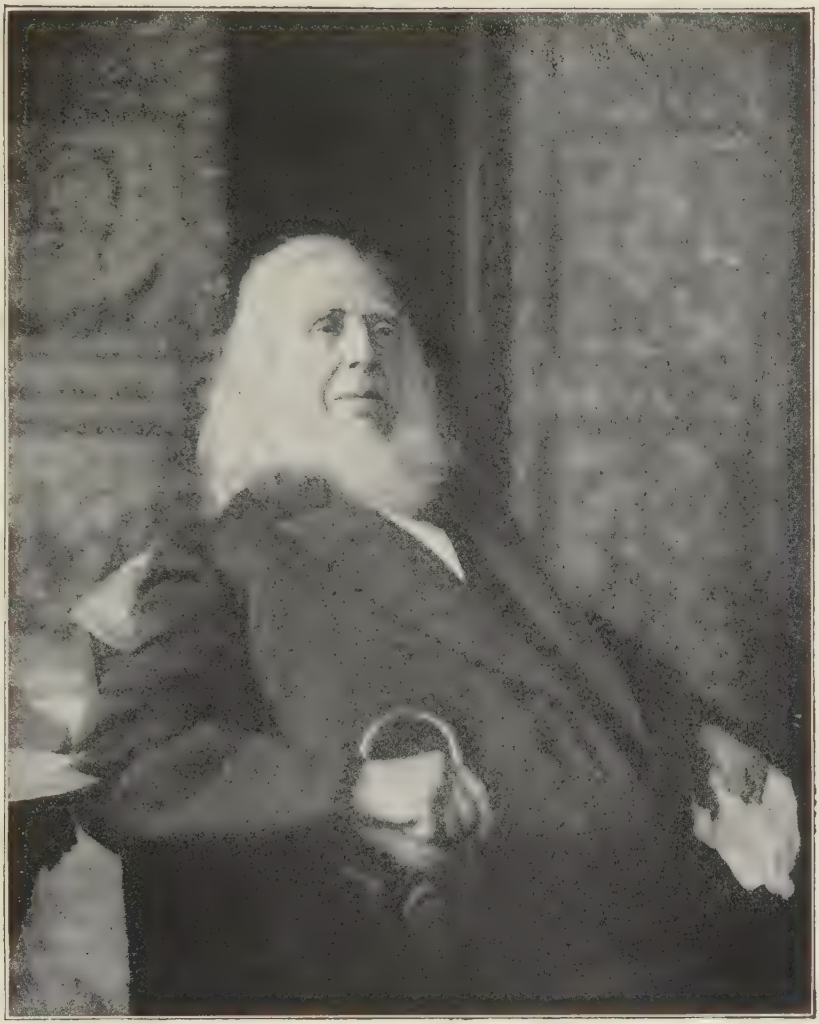
The list of his achievements is a long one, but the thought in the mind of this successful business man was far removed from that of merely amassing a fortune. He was securing funds to carry out his plans for the benefit of his fellow Americans.

Gradually he had been buying up land for his Union, where education and recreation was to be free and accessible to all. He bought up building material when it was cheapest. Carefully had he planned the great building, and in February of 1853 the cornerstone was laid with appropriate ceremonies. With the keenest interest he watched the growth of that building. Even though a great panic struck the city during the construction, work went on, though at great financial risk to Mr. Cooper, and entirely for the sake of the workmen. He said: "These men and their families must not be allowed to starve." In the blackest days of the panic he always kept a stack of half dollars on his desk, and he was ready to bestow one on any hungry man who applied.

In the plans for Cooper Union, the founder did not go to existing institutions here or abroad, but built from his own long life of study and keen observation. A disregard for tradition and real vision marked his work. Many of his ideas had to be readjusted to conditions and this adjustment was always made with the best of grace. The roof garden was not realized, the museum was made a great library, and various modifications were demanded, but in its essential points sixty years has justified the wonderful vision of the founder and the Union numbers its enthusiastic supporters by the thousand.

One of the advances made, and one that encountered much opposition, was that of providing space for women. It had been previously possible for women to do little else than teach as a career. The school of design and art at the Union has been a boon to thousands of women and eminently practical.

Others have aided the Union and the management has long been vested in a board of trustees, of whom it must be said that none ever received compensation. The careers of the thousands of men and women who have gone from Cooper Union into the world equipped with a knowledge of the arts, sciences and handicrafts are the best memorials to this grand old man who was "advanced" and "radical" in the highest and best sense of those terms. His is the spirit that has made our country what it is, and it is in men of similar vision and performance that the hopes for the future must lie.



Peter Cooper

LOUIS AGASSIZ — Born 1807 — Died 1873

But beyond the bright searchlights of science,
Out of sight of the windows of sense,
Old riddles still bid us defiance
Old questions of Why and of Whence.
—WHETHAM'S "Recent Development of Physical Science."

IN the far away Swiss town of Motier in the year 1807 there was born a son in the home of the village pastor. This little boy with the long name of Jean Louis Rodolphe Agassiz was destined to become America's most beloved teacher, a man who could "recognize the birds from far off by their song and could give a name to every fish in the sea."

The boy Louis had no schooling before the age of ten save that given him by his parents and by the great teacher, Mother Nature. He had not many books and very wisely studied animals and fishes directly. The great stone basin in the back yard was his first aquarium and he tells us that his own room was a "little menagerie."

At the age of ten he went twenty miles away to Bienne to attend a "college for boys." Here he studied for four years and was especially zealous in acquiring knowledge of natural history. He was a stalwart youth and did not fear long marches of 30 miles in a day when in search of specimens for study. This program he would keep up for "eight days in succession" and with a heavy pack on his back loaded with plants and minerals.

From his first school he went after four years to Lausanne to the college there. A little later he decided to study medicine as a profession. He studied at Zurich, Heidelberg and at Munich, and from the latter place emerged not only a doctor of medicine but a doctor of philosophy as well.

At the age of twenty-one this young scientist published his first book, "Brazilian Fishes," which he hoped would please his parents as well as a prescription in the village apothecary's shop. He practised medicine only one year, and shortly after ceasing, we find him a Professor of Natural History at Neuchâtel, Switzerland. He loved this work and here he brought out his monumental five volume work on fossil fishes.

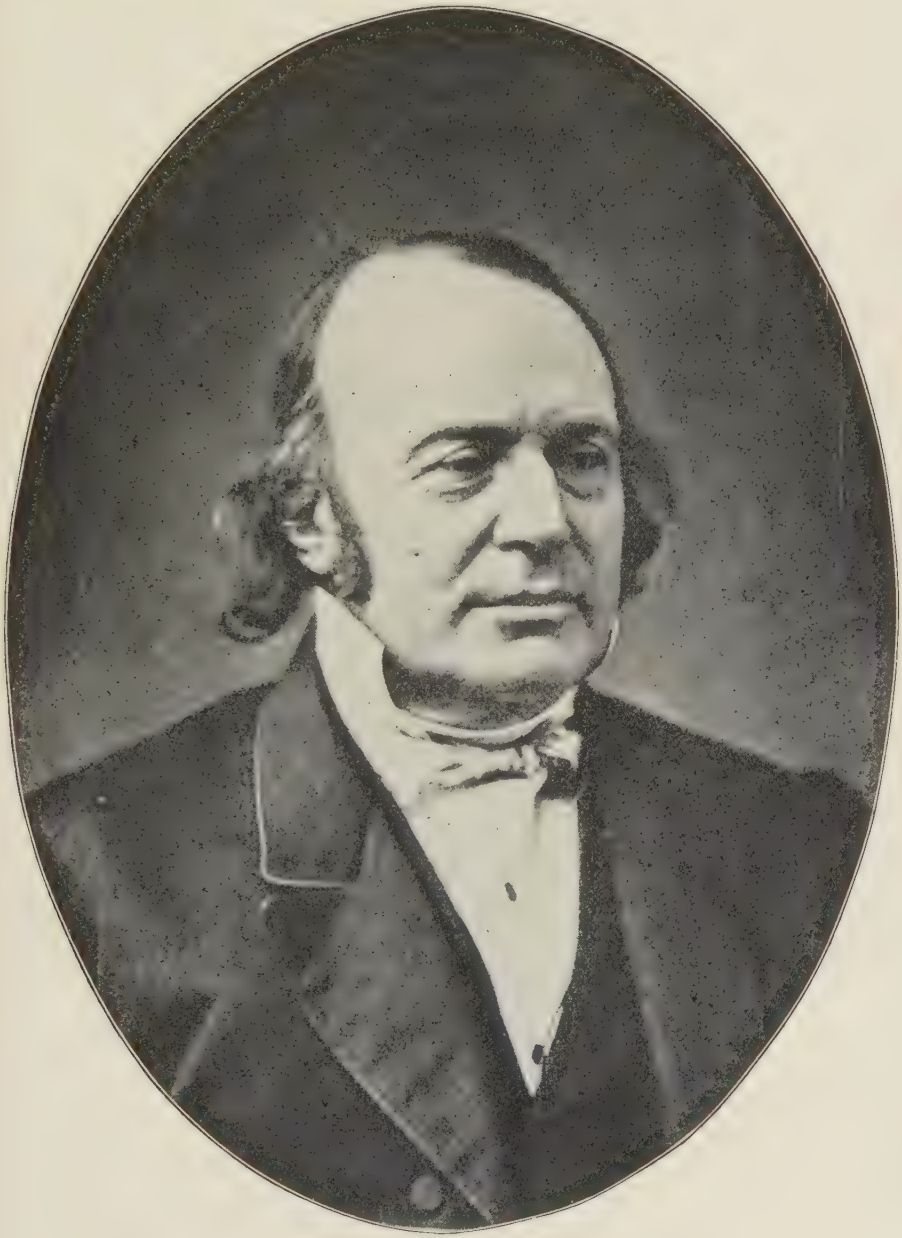
In Switzerland the study of glaciers enlisted his earnest attention and seven summers were spent on the Aar glacier living there in a little hut.

But Agassiz wanted "to serve science and at the same time live in the world" and the way to do this best seemed to open in the offer of a place in America. He left Europe in 1846, never to return except as a visitor, and began lecturing at the Lowell Institute in Boston. In 1848 he became Professor of Zoology and Geology at Harvard University.

There was no museum and he wanted one. Everybody helped him. The fishermen captured all manner of fish and even whales. The captains of sailing vessels would carry cans of alcohol to preserve specimens for the Harvard teacher. In due time the museum was completed and Agassiz was happy. He made many trips for material for his museum and for his work and when away his friends all waited eagerly for his return and felt as Holmes expressed it:

"God bless the great professor,
And the land his proud possessor."

People actually loved Agassiz and the townsmen in Cambridge were wont



LOUIS AGASSIZ

to say that one had "less need of an overcoat when passing Agassiz' house." Delightful were the scenes at the meetings of the Saturday Club in Cambridge. Holmes, Longfellow, Hawthorne, Lowell, Emerson and Whittier were some of those that sat at table with Agassiz and upon the great scientist's fiftieth birthday a celebration was held. Longfellow read his poem for the occasion and finally came to the last stanza:

"And the mother at home says 'Hark!'
For his voice I listen and yearn;
It is growing cold and dark,
And my boy does not return!' "

At this point Agassiz broke down completely and wept. Two years later he was able to return to his mother and spent almost the entire summer with her.

Most of all Agassiz loved to teach and he prized the name of teacher above every other title. As a teacher he made sure that his students used their eyes, and one pupil has told a story that illustrates this well. The master took out a fish from an evil-smelling preserving fluid and bade the young man study and report. Ten minutes passed and the student had seen all there was to be seen, in his estimation. But time went on, and the hours lengthened into a half day. The master looked in and inquired as to what had been seen. He shook his head and murmured, "But you have not looked very carefully. Look again. Look again." All afternoon the budding scientist stayed with the fish for sole companion. He was getting very much disgusted, when he thought of drawing the fish, instead of just turning it over and over. He did this and at evening the great teacher returned. "That is good, but study it some more," was the injunction when pressed for a new assignment. For three solid days the student lived with that fish and at the end of the third day he proudly announced, "symmetrical sides and paired organs." This was really seeing and elicited an enthusiastic "Yes!" from Agassiz, who was immensely pleased that the student had found out for himself.

One of the latter works of Agassiz was the founding of the summer school at Penikese. He secured this little island in Buzzard's Bay together with an appropriation of $50,000 for equipment from a rich New York merchant, John Anderson. Thither went Agassiz with his students and converted the barn into a big lecture hall.

Not long afterward the end came and the great teacher scientist was laid in beautiful Mount Auburn. Marking the spot is a great boulder brought from the Aar glacier and pines from his beloved Swiss home cast their shade about the place. And the museum, which by many is called the "Agassiz Museum," grows larger and better and has been said by the great British naturalist, Wallace, to be finer than the British museum.

The name of Agassiz lives today in the hearts of the people as the ideal teacher. He taught the nation how to study nature, how to love her, and how reverence is due every created object. He aroused the desire for scientific study. The methods of Agassiz will live forever because they are based on truth itself.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN, Born 1809—Died 1865

Oh, slow to smite and swift to spare,
Gentle and merciful and just!
Who, in the fear of God, didst bear
The sword of power, a nation's trust!

* * * * *

Thy task is done; the bonds are free:
We bear thee to an honored grave,
Whose proudest monument shall be
The broken fetters of the slave.

—BRYANT'S "The Death of Lincoln."

IN front of a rude log cabin on a lonely clearing in Kentucky, a barefoot boy, with long legs, abundant black hair, and grayish brown eyes, laboriously learned his letters at his mother's knee. This boy was Abraham Lincoln, who grew up to be one of the noblest men in history.

When Lincoln was seven years old his parents moved to Indiana and

Cabin where Lincoln was born

settled on a poor hillside farm not far from the Ohio River. Their home was little more than a shed or open camp such as may be seen today in the mountains, where hunters occasionally pass a night. It was built of rough logs. There were no doors or windows, for one whole side was open to sun, wind, and storm. Food was cooked over a fire in front of the hut, and this outdoor fire was the only means of heating it in winter. The dining table was the flat side of half a log, with holes bored in each end, and stakes driven in for legs. In place of chairs there were three-legged stools, and the boy's bed was of boughs or dried leaves. "Little Abe" soon learned to hunt deer and other wild game; there was little else to eat besides potatoes and corn bread.

Mrs. Lincoln was a delicate, overworked woman, and she died not long after the family moved to Indiana. She was buried on the clearing, and the lonely boy spent hours weeping at her grave. Her last words to him had been: "I know that you will always be good and kind. Try to live as I have taught you, and love your heavenly Father." When Lincoln had grown to manhood, he said: "All that I am or ever hope to be, I owe to my mother."

It was not long before his father married again, and fortunately the stepmother was a thrifty, kind-hearted woman. She insisted that the cabin be rebuilt; that it have a door, window, floor, and a chimney, so that the fire might be inside.

Abraham Lincoln spent only one year of his life at school, and he walked four miles to reach the rude log schoolhouse, where little besides

"reading, writing, and ciphering" was taught. His mother had early taught him to read, and he had learned by heart long passages from the few books he could borrow. After dark the boy would lie in front of the blazing logs and read by their light. Candles were a luxury which the Lincolns could not often afford. The books which the boy read again and again were the Bible, Æsop's Fables, Pilgrim's Progress, Robinson Crusoe, and a History of the United States.

"Abe read everything he could lay his hands on," said his mother; "and when he came upon a passage that struck him, he would write it upon a board, if he had no paper, and commit it to memory." Paper was scarce in the little cabin, so young Lincoln, now grown to be a tall, muscular lad, would spend his evenings working out examples in arithmetic on a wooden shovel with a piece of burned stick. When he had filled the shovel, he would whittle it afresh and begin again.

One day the lad borrowed a "Life of Washington" from a neighbor, and carried it with him to bed in his loft, to be read by candle light. When he was ready for sleep, he slipped the book between the logs of which the cabin was built. In the morning he found, to his dismay, that a storm had beaten in and ruined the book. The owner told him, however, that if he would work three days for the book he might keep it, and Lincoln always said that this story of Washington's life helped to shape his own.

He helped his father on the farm, and did all kinds of work for near-by settlers. Sometimes he earned thirty cents a day, sometimes less. When he was little more than twenty, the family packed their furniture into an ox cart and set out for Illinois. It was in the spring of the year, the streams were swollen from the winter snows, and the roads were wretched. Lincoln never forgot this lonely, tiresome journey, on which he was ox driver, hunter, sometimes cook, and always general helper.

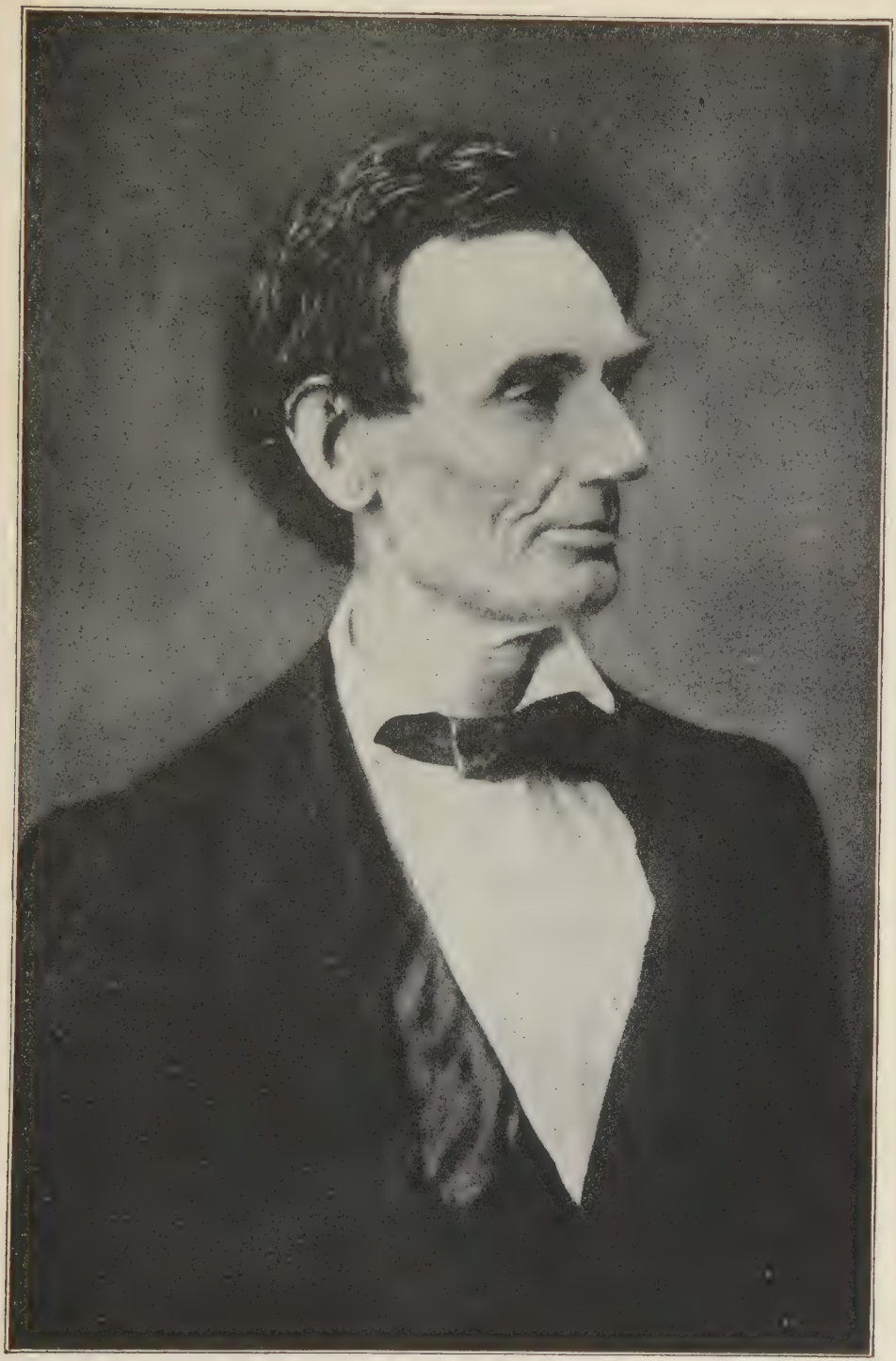
A new log cabin was built on the banks of a stream flowing into the Ohio River, and Abraham was soon busy clearing the land for planting, and splitting rails with which to build a fence. One of the young man's first business ventures was a bargain with a neighbor for three and one-half yards of brown jeans for a pair of trousers. Before that time his trousers had been made of deerskin. Lincoln agreed to split four hundred fence rails for each yard of cloth.

He soon found an opportunity to go down the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers on one of the flat-bottom freight boats that carried farm produce to the larger markets. At New Orleans he saw a slave auction. The sight of the helpless negroes, driven and sold like cattle at public auction to anyone who had the price, made a deep impression on Lincoln. The young man could not then foresee that he would one day strike such a blow against slavery that the shackles that bound millions of human beings would be broken.

We next find Abraham Lincoln an awkward young man, six feet four inches tall, as clerk in a village store at New Salem, Illinois, and champion wrestler of the neighborhood. He was known to be so fair in all dealings that his companions called him "Honest Abe."

One day, finding that he had been overpaid six cents by a woman customer, Lincoln walked three miles into the country after the store closed to give back the money.

He was a capital story-teller and could always attract a crowd of



ABRAHAM LINCOLN, LAWYER
Showing Lincoln in his early manhood

listeners. He was good-natured, warm-hearted, and helpful. Once, while riding along the road with some companions, he stopped to replace two young birds that had fallen from the nest; at another time he covered a new suit of clothes with mud in an effort to help a pig out of a deep hole. His stepmother once said of him, "Abe never gave me a cross word or look, and never refused to do anything that I asked him."

For a time Lincoln tried store-keeping at New Salem, and then he became postmaster; but there was so very little business that it was hard to earn a living. He spent his leisure in studying grammar, surveying, and law. When Black Hawk, an Indian friend of the great warrior, Tecumseh, tried to drive the white settlers from Illinois, Lincoln went to the Black Hawk War as captain of a company. "It was not much of a war," he said afterward, "and the only battles I fought were with mosquitoes."

After trying surveying he took up law. He would often lie all day under the shade of a tree with his book in his hand. He studied so faithfully that it was not long before he was admitted to the bar. His practical common sense and unquestioned honesty gained him a large practice. The population of Illinois was scattered, and Lincoln rode, as Jackson had done in Tennessee, from one courthouse to another throughout the country. This was called "riding the circuit."

In 1842 he married Miss Mary Todd, of Kentucky, and lived for a time at the old Globe Tavern in Springfield. Later they moved to a house in Springfield, which, save for the period spent in Washington, was ever afterward their home.

For many years Lincoln had been interested in public matters. He read the newspapers thoroughly, and the stirring speeches of Henry Clay. He began to think long and earnestly of the growing feeling of bitterness between the North and the South.

There is no sadder story in the history of America than that of slavery. We have seen how the North had little use for slaves, and soon came to desire the freedom of the negro. The South needed more and more help in the rice, cotton, and tobacco fields, and insisted that slavery should continue. Another point of difference between the two sections of the country was the way they felt about the Union. The North now looked upon the state as only a small part of the great Republic, and thought it wrong for a state not to submit to the laws of the Nation. The South still held that a State had rights guaranteed by the constitution and that slave-holding was one of them.

Abraham Lincoln viewed these disagreements with alarm. At the age of twenty-three he had been elected to the state legislature, and had walked one hundred miles, carrying his belongings, to take his seat as one of the state's lawmakers. From that time his fame in Illinois steadily grew, and at the age of forty-seven he was nominated by the Republican party for the United States Senate. The Democratic candidate was Stephen A. Douglas, called the "Little Giant," because of his small stature and great oratorical power. In 1858 Lincoln and Douglas began a series of debates that attracted the attention of the country. They discussed particularly the spread of slavery into the new states. "Who is this Abraham Lincoln?" asked the people of the East; for his wisdom, sound sense, and convincing argument were everywhere talked of.

Lincoln was wise enough to see that, if the Union was to be preserved,

the slavery question must be settled once for all. "A house divided against itself," said he, "cannot stand. I believe this government cannot endure permanently half slave and half free. I do not expect the Union to be dissolved; I do not expect the house to fall; but I do expect that it will cease to be divided."

Several years after the California Compromise the country was aroused by the "Dred Scott case." Scott was a slave, whose master had taken him from Missouri to Illinois for two years, then brought him back to Missouri and sold him. Scott claimed that, as he had lived in a free state for two years, he was a free man and could not be sold. The case was decided against the negro by all the courts, even by the Supreme Court of the United States. This decision by the highest court in the land alarmed the North, while it created the wildest enthusiasm in the South.

In Kansas the fight between "Free State" men and those who wished to have Kansas admitted as a slave state was very bitter. Among the Kansas settlers was John Brown, who had come from the East. He was a religious fanatic who hated slavery and used to say that he would "go out, gun in hand, to kill it." In 1859, with a few companions, he captured the arsenal at Harper's Ferry, Virginia. Slavery had begun in Virginia, he argued, so the first attack upon it should be made in that state. Brown was captured, convicted of treason, and hanged. His last words were, "The negro question will never be settled except by the shedding of blood." This incident created great excitement, and, sadly enough, time was to prove that Brown's words were true. Not many years afterward, northern soldiers, marching to defend the Union, passed the place where his gallows had been erected. As they tramped they sang:—

> "John Brown's body lies a-moldering in the grave,
> His soul is marching on."

"The Declaration of Independence," said Abraham Lincoln, in one of his great speeches, "says that all men are created free and equal, and that they are entitled to 'life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.' In some respects the negro is not my equal, but in his natural right to eat the bread he earns with his own hands, without asking leave of any one, he is my equal and the equal of all others."

Douglas defeated Lincoln for the senatorship, but the people did not forget the sane argument of the tall Illinois lawyer, with the odd voice, deep earnestness, and fund of droll stories. They thought over these debates for two years; then, at a convention held at Chicago in 1860, "Honest Abe, the Rail Splitter," was chosen candidate for President. And by his election it came about that the little barefoot boy, brought up on the western frontier, found himself, at the age of fifty-one, in the highest office in the land, the head of a nation of thirty millions of people.

Before Lincoln was inaugurated in 1861, seven of the southern states had seceded, or withdrawn, from the Union,—South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Florida, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas. They called themselves the Confederate States of America, and they set up a government of their own, with Jefferson Davis of Mississippi as President. This came as a great shock to the people of the North; for, in spite of threats and warnings, they had never really believed that the South would secede.

When Lincoln left his home for Washington, he said in a farewell speech to his friends, "I go to assume

a task more difficult than that which devolved upon Washington. Unless the great God, who assisted him, shall be with and aid me, I must fail." An historian has said: "No public man, no great popular leader, ever faced a more terrible situation. The Union was breaking, the southern states were seceding, and the government was bankrupt."

Even after the southern states began to secede, the North still believed that there would be no war. Then news came on April 12, 1861, that Fort Sumter, in Charleston harbor, had been fired upon and captured by the Confederates. Not since the shot fired at Lexington had the nation been so stirred. The North sprang to arms, and within forty-eight hours after the firing on Fort Sumter, thousands of volunteers had offered their services to Congress to defend the Stars and Stripes.

Soon the "boys in blue" were marching toward Washington to the song, "We're coming, Father Abraham, three hundred thousand more." The President ordered government vessels to blockade the southern ports, and prevent the South from obtaining help from Europe. At Bull Run, only thirty miles from Washington, a bloody battle was fought on July 21, and the North was defeated.

Deep gloom overspread the country, increasing as month after month the weary struggle continued. In a terrible engagement near Richmond, which lasted for several days, neither side was victorious. At Antietam, in western Maryland, in 1862, one of the bloodiest battles of the war was fought.

Throughout the first two years of the war President Lincoln maintained that he had no right to free slaves. At the end of that time the struggle had lasted so much longer than either side had expected, that his clear, far-seeing wisdom led him to take a heroic step. The thousands of slaves in the South had taken no part in the battles, but they were doing the work on the plantations and building forts, which enabled the white men to fight. As a military measure, therefore, the President felt justified in freeing the slaves, and in that way crippling the resources of the Confederate States.

Accordingly, in September, 1862, President Lincoln issued his famous Proclamation of Emancipation, announcing that, if the Confederates did not cease fighting by New Year's Day, all slaves in the states which had separated from the Union should be freed. "I do not argue," said the President, in his proclamation to the people of the South; "I beseech you to make the argument for yourselves. So much good has not been done by one effort in all past times, as in the providence of God it is now your high duty to do." On New Year's Day, 1863, the Emancipation Act became a law, and Abraham Lincoln broke the chain that bound four millions of human beings.

Still the South would not yield, and at the battle of Chancellorsville, Va., in May, 1863, the Confederate generals Lee and Jackson won a great victory over the Union men. It was the northerners' worst defeat since the beginning of the war. Then General Lee, commander of the Confederate forces, determined to conquer the Union forces on their own territory. On marched the solid ranks of the "boys in gray," past Washington, past Baltimore, striking terror to the people of the North. At Gettysburg in July, 1863, Lee met the Union army under General Meade, whom Grant called "the right man in the right place." In a terrible battle lasting

three days, the Confederate forces were broken and driven from the field.

A noble monument marks the site of the Gettysburg battle. Not long after it occurred, a portion of the battlefield was set aside as a national cemetery. On this solemn occasion President Lincoln delivered an address which is considered, not only in America, but throughout the world, one of the most impressive public speeches ever made. "* * * In a larger sense we cannot dedicate, we cannot consecrate, we cannot hallow this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here, have consecrated it far above our power to add or detract. The world will little note nor long remember what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us, the living, rather, to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced; * * * that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain; that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom; and that government of the people, by the people, and for the people, shall not perish from the earth."

We shall soon learn about General Grant and the part that he took in the war. The eyes of President Lincoln had been on him from the beginning, and in March, 1864, he was made lieutenant general and given command of the entire northern army. His famous capture of Vicksburg, after a siege of seven weeks, was the beginning of the end, which came with Lee's surrender to Grant at Appomattox Courthouse, Virginia, on April 9, 1865.

Through four long weary years had President Lincoln's wisdom, patience, and courage guided the fate of the nation. He never spared himself in any way; he never ceased to work, to hope, and to cheer. While it seemed as if his heart would break under its load of responsibility and grief, he went bravely forward, patiently doing his duty. Even when the outlook was darkest, he would cheer those who came to consult him about grave matters by telling humorous stories; while all the time he was at heart sad and depressed because of the "nation's wounds." Although he had been deeply censured and even abused, the majority of the people knew that Lincoln had saved the Union, and they reëlected him President in 1864.

But he was not to serve his country much longer. On April 14, 1865, the very day on which the Union flag was restored to Fort Sumter, as President Lincoln sat in a box at Ford's Theater, in Washington, with his wife and friends, he was shot by a half-crazed actor. For hours he hovered between life and death; then his great soul took its flight. In unspotted purity, honesty, and patriotism had his life been passed. "Now he belongs to the ages," said Secretary Stanton, when Lincoln breathed his last.

After the body had lain in state at the Capitol, the funeral train started for Springfield, Illinois, stopping at the larger cities along the route, where it was met with every demonstration of grief. He lies buried in Oak Ridge Cemetery, near Springfield. There are statues to his memory throughout the land, but his noblest monuments are his Emancipation Proclamation, his Gettysburg Address, and the Second Inaugural Address, from which the following words are taken: "With malice toward none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right, as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in, to

bind up the nation's wounds, to care for him who shall have borne the battle, and for his widow and his orphan,—to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations."

Each year that has passed since his tragic death has deepened the admiration of the world for Abraham Lincoln. People living in America today owe to him such gratitude as only love and reverence can pay. His wisdom, steadfastness, and foresight brought the nation safely through one of the greatest crises in her history, and the world furnishes no loftier example of manhood, than that of—

"The kindly-earnest, brave, far-seeing man,
Sagacious, patient, dreading praise, not blame,
New birth of our new soil, the first American."

ULYSSES S. GRANT—Born 1822—Died 1885

He came grim—silent, saw and did the deed
That was to do; in his master grip
Our sword flashed joy; no skill of words could breed
Such sure conviction as that close-clamped lip;
He slew our dragon, nor, so seemed it, knew
He had done more than any simplest man might do.
—LOWELL'S "On a Bust of General Grant."

IN ONE of the most terrible years of the Civil War, President Lincoln wrote General Grant: "The particulars of your campaign I neither know nor seek to know. I wish not to intrude any restraints or constraints upon you."

Who was this General Grant in whom the great Lincoln placed such confidence?

Ulysses S. Grant was born at Point Pleasant, about twenty-five miles from Cincinnati, Ohio. He was christened Hiram Ulysses, but when he entered West Point, through an error his name was sent in as Ulysses Simpson Grant, Simpson being his mother's maiden name. Grant was never afterward able to correct this mistake, and the initials U. S. caused him afterward to be nicknamed "Uncle Sam" and "Unconditional Surrender."

His father was a farmer and tanner. Ulysses grew up a sturdy boy, with bluish gray eyes, brown hair, and quiet manners. He attended the country school, was fond of the woods, of swimming and fishing in summer and skating in winter, and of managing horses.

"When I was seven or eight years of age," said General Grant, "I began hauling all the wood used in the house and shops. When about eleven years old I was strong enough to hold a plow. From that age until seventeen I did all the work done with horses."

At seventeen Grant was attending school at Ripley. When he came home for the Christmas holidays his father said, "Ulysses, I believe you are going to receive the appointment to West Point; I have applied for it." "But I won't go," answered the boy. Long afterward Grant wrote of this incident, "My father said he thought I would, and I thought so too, if he did."

The West Point appointment was secured, but military life had no charm for the young westerner, and he had no intention of remaining in the army. He gave little time to his studies, but spent hours in the library,

U. S. Grant

reading such books as he liked. He was the best horseman in his class, as he was afterward one of the best in the army.

"Mathematics was very easy to me," said Grant, "so that I passed the examination, taking a good standing in that branch. In French my standing was very low." He was graduated at the age of twenty-one, ranking twenty-first in a class of thirty-nine. He was made a second lieutenant and was stationed at Jefferson Barracks, Missouri.

It was not long before the young man saw military service of a severer type than the drill ground of West Point afforded. Texas, which had at one time been a part of Mexico, was admitted into the Union as a state in 1845. She claimed that her western boundary was the Rio Grande River, but the Republic of Mexico claimed a strip of land on the east side of that river.

In the summer of 1845 President Polk ordered General Taylor to erect a fort on the disputed territory. The Mexicans considered this an act of war. They made an attack upon the Americans, and several men were killed. President Polk at once sent a message to Congress. "Mexico," said he, "has passed the boundary of the United States, and shed American blood upon American soil. War exists by the act of Mexico herself." Volunteers were called for, and in 1846 General Taylor attacked the Mexicans at Monterey and captured the town. For the next year and a half there was war between the United States and Mexico.

Young Grant fought bravely during this war, though he always called it "unholy." He thought, with very many others, that it might have been avoided. The Americans were victorious in every battle, and the Mexicans were forced to give up all claim to the disputed land. Grant came out of the Mexican War with the rank of captain, for he had shown good judgment, courage, and ability. At Chapultepec, he managed to have a gun carried to the belfry of a church, and from this elevation did such effective work as to win warm praise and promotion.

Not long after peace was declared, Grant married Miss Julia Dent, a sister of one of his classmates. He resigned from the army and tried to make his living by farming. With his own hands he built a cabin which he named "Hardscrabble," and, when his old soldier friends came to see him, they sometimes found him, with overalls tucked into his boots, doing the rough work. He was a kind and generous neighbor, and all the animals on his place were pets.

When Captain Grant failed at farming, he tried the real estate business, but again was unsuccessful. At last his father offered him a position in the leather store at Galena, Illinois, and here he was working as clerk when the Civil War broke out in 1861. He was thirty-nine years old and almost unknown. Four years later his fame had spread over the world.

The news that Fort Sumter had been fired upon aroused all the sleeping energy in Grant. The United States government had educated him at its own cost at West Point, and had taught him to be a soldier. Could he sit idly by and see his country's flag torn down by the states that had seceded? Not he; and Grant's Civil War record was as splendid as any in military history.

He immediately rejoined the army and was appointed colonel of an Illinois regiment. When he appeared before his soldiers, he had no uniform,

and was in no way distinguished in appearance, but his first words, "Men, go to your quarters," in some manner made the men feel his force. Without wasting words, and without show or ceremony, Grant went forward with his work.

His first achievement was the capture of Forts Henry and Donelson, in February, 1862. These forts were strong defenses of the Confederates in Tennessee. While the battle of Fort Donelson was in progress, the Confederate commander sent to Grant to ask what terms he would give. "No terms except an unconditional and immediate surrender," was the reply. Nearly fifteen thousand southerners laid down their arms at Fort Donelson. It was a splendid victory, for it forced the Confederates to give up two strongholds, Nashville and Columbus, and it opened the Tennessee and Cumberland rivers.

Grant's next effort was to drive the Confederate army from Corinth, Mississippi. He was attacked by the southerners under General Johnston, and, after a frightful battle lasting nearly all day, the Union army was driven back with awful loss. When darkness fell there was still no rest for Grant. With no idea of giving up, he made his plans to renew the battle on the next day. Toward morning he sat down in the rain, and, leaning against a tree, snatched a few hours' sleep. With daylight came reënforcements, and before many hours Grant had won the victory.

Some thought he was to blame for his first defeat; he had mismanaged the battle, they declared, and President Lincoln was urged to remove him from command. Lincoln turned the matter over in his mind and then replied: "I can't spare this man; he fights. I have noticed that wherever Grant is, *things move*."

The battle of Shiloh, or Pittsburg Landing, was another Confederate defeat. By the close of the second year of the war, the northern troops were in possession of every military post along the Mississippi River, except Vicksburg and Port Hudson. The Mississippi was now open as far as Vicksburg.

Early in 1863 Grant resolved to capture this stronghold, but for seven weeks the city withstood attack. It was situated on a bluff two hundred feet above the river, with a series of forts along the water front. On the north were swamps and creeks. How could Grant capture a town so well protected? He chose a night so dark that he was able to run his gunboats past the batteries. Then he ferried his army across the river and opened fire. The rain of shot and shell that his regiments and Porter's gunboats poured into the town night and day was so terrific that the citizens retreated to cellars and caves for safety. Grant's perseverance is shown by a remark he made during this campaign: "I mean to stay here until I take this town if it takes thirty years."

The month of July, 1863, opened poorly for the southerners. Lee's terrible defeat at Gettysburg occurred on the third of July, and on the fourth Pemberton surrendered his army of thirty-two thousand men at Vicksburg to General Grant. These two great victories practically crushed the rebellion, though there was much more hard fighting before the South would yield. Within a short time Port Hudson surrendered. The North then controlled every fort on the Mississippi. "Its waters," said President Lincoln, "now flow unvexed to the sea."

Grant's brilliant victory at Vicksburg was soon rewarded. President

Lincoln made him lieutenant general, and placed him in command of all the Union forces, about seven hundred thousand men. "As the country herein trusts you," said Lincoln, "so, under God, it will sustain you."

The field of active fighting was now changed from the West to the South, and Grant planned the movements that ended the war. With his own army he was to advance against Richmond. Sherman was sent to capture Atlanta, and after that came his famous "march to the sea," which, like Sheridan's ride," was one of the most exciting happenings of the war.

Grant had sent Sheridan to lay waste the Shenandoah valley, and thus cut off supplies from the Confederate army. Sheridan did this so thoroughly that some one said, "If a crow flies down the valley, he must take his provisions with him." In October, he had just returned to Winchester, when the sound of cannon in the direction of Cedar Creek attracted his attention. Twenty miles of country stretched between him and the scene of battle, but without waiting a moment he mounted his horse and set off at a gallop. Swifter and swifter he flew over the country without pause or rest, and arrived just in time to see the "boys in blue" driven gradually back. When the Union forces saw their commander, however, they burst into cheers. Swinging his cap and galloping along the lines, Sheridan rallied the broken forces. "We'll whip them yet, boys," he shouted, and once more the northerners returned to the attack, and this time drove the Confederates from the field.

Grant's plan for General Sherman proved successful also. Sherman had captured Atlanta, and now resolved to march across the state of Georgia, laying the country waste as he went. This seemed to be necessary in order to bring the long war to a close. In November, 1864, Sherman set fire to Atlanta, and leaving the city a smoking ruin, started with sixty thousand men on his famous march to the sea. The army, as it swept along, was in four columns, extending sixty miles in width across the country. Mile after mile they tramped, tearing up railways and destroying roads and bridges so that the Confederates might not follow them. In three weeks and a half Sherman reached Savannah, after covering a distance of more than three hundred miles. He captured the city, and Christmas Eve sent this message to President Lincoln, "I beg to present to you as a Christmas gift the city of Savannah."

And what had General Grant been doing in the meantime? In May, 1864, he crossed the Rapidan, and entered a region known as "The Wilderness." Here, in a thick forest, a hard battle was fought with the Confederates, in which neither side was victorious. Grant and his troops suffered terribly, but he was in no way dismayed. He telegraphed Lincoln, "I propose to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer."

All of Grant's "bull-dog grip" was needed to capture Richmond. Five other Union generals had attempted it and failed. Could he succeed? He crossed over to the south side of the James River, and from there stormed the city. It was a hard task, but at last he was successful. In April, 1865, Lee surrendered his whole army of twenty-six thousand men at Appomattox Courthouse.

Grant and Lee had exchanged letters to arrange for the surrender, for both knew that the war must end. "What General Lee's feelings were, I do not know," said Grant, afterward. "But my own, which had been quite jubilant,

P. H. Sheridan

were sad and depressed. I felt like anything rather than rejoicing at the downfall of a foe who had fought so long and valiantly and had suffered so much." It was impossible for him to gloat over a victory that had been won at so terrible a sacrifice.

Grant proved himself a generous conqueror. He allowed General Lee and his officers to keep their swords, and treated them with every courtesy. The men were told to take their horses home with them. "They will need them," said Grant, "to do the spring plowing on their farms." Naturally enough the Union soldiers rejoiced at Lee's surrender, but when they began to fire salutes Grant stopped them. He did not wish to "humiliate a brave enemy." "The war is over," he said; "these soldiers are our countrymen again." The Confederate regiments had been living on corn pounded between stones, but the "boys in blue" began to treat the southerners as brothers, and gladly divided their rations. The terrible war had cost the United States nearly a million lives, and more than two billions of dollars, while the lovely southern country was in ruins.

The nation's progress, however, could not be checked, and an important event should be remembered in connection with this period of our history. In 1867 the United States purchased from Russia, for seven million dollars, the immense territory of Alaska. The country was rich in forests and furs, and a few years after its purchase by our government, rich deposits of gold were found along the Yukon and Klondike rivers.

Grant was so popular that he was twice elected President, first in 1869, the year that saw the completion of the first railway to the Pacific Ocean. Gold had been discovered in California, and thousands of people were eager to rush to the rich mines; and the completion of the Union Pacific Railway was a great event. Before his term of office expired Grant also had the satisfaction of seeing, for the first time since the war, representatives in Congress from all the southern states that had seceded.

A very important event occurred during Grant's administration which set an example to the world for settling serious disputes without fighting. During the war Great Britain had allowed Confederate ships to be fitted out in England and to sail from her ports; among them was the famous *Alabama*, which did so much damage to northern vessels. The United States held that Great Britain, being a neutral country, had no right to furnish such help to the Confederates. Our government accordingly claimed damages, which came to be known as the "Alabama Claims." The whole question was submitted to a board of arbitrators, appointed by Great Britain, the United States, Italy, Switzerland, and Brazil. These men met at Geneva, Switzerland, to discuss the matter, and after hearing both sides the board awarded the United States damages to the amount of fifteen million five hundred thousand dollars.

On retiring from the presidency, Grant and his wife made a trip around the world. In every country that he visited he was received with the greatest honor. He was always loved for his honesty as well as for his bravery, and because he was honest himself he trusted every one else. In the closing years of his life he placed his confidence in men entirely unworthy of it, and in a business venture was cheated out of every dollar he owned.

The great soldier, now past sixty years of age, found himself penniless, and suffering from an incurable disease;

W. T. Sherman

but with all his old heroism he set to work to write a book, his "Memoirs," to save his family from want when he had passed away. Month after month, in spite of physical pain, he worked with unfailing patience at his task. The book was completed before he breathed his last at Mount McGregor, near Saratoga, New York, in July, 1885. "To pay his debts he has so utterly stripped himself of all his trophies and possessions that there was not left a uniform to clothe his body or a sword to lay upon his coffin."

Deep and sincere was the mourning throughout the nation. His public funeral in New York City was attended by thousands of people from the North and the South. Some who had fought on the Confederate side were among the pallbearers. He rests in the splendid mausoleum on Riverside Drive, and thousands yearly visit the tomb of this great soldier:—

"Doer of hopeless tasks which praters shirk,
One of those still plain men that do the world's rough work."

ROBERT EDWARD LEE—Born 1807—Died 1870

No more shall the war cry sever,
Or the winding rivers be red;
They banish our anger forever
When they laurel the graves of our dead!
Under the sod and the dew,
Waiting the judgment day!
Love and tears for the Blue,
Tears and love for the Gray.
—FINCH'S "The Blue and the Gray."

WHEN the questions of slavery and secession filled the minds of the people of the United States, and little else was talked of, a northern poet wrote:

"Once to every man and nation comes the moment to decide,
In the strife of Truth with Falsehood, for the good or evil side."

At the outbreak of the Civil War it seemed to the people of the North that there was only one decision either true or good. "Abolish slavery and preserve the Union," was their cry. "Slavery and secession are evil." But the South maintained: "There are two sides to every question. You see one, and we the other. Just as many sincere men will fight upon the Confederate side as with the Union army."

A leader among the noble men who took up arms for the South was Robert E. Lee, a man of spotless purity and upright character. His father, Henry Lee, was the brave and daring officer in the Revolutionary War known as "Light-horse Harry." Robert was born at Stratford, Virginia. He received his early education at Alexandria, and was graduated from the Military Academy at West Point at the age of twenty-two, ten years before Ulysses S. Grant entered that famous school. Lee was a faithful student, and ranked second in his class.

During the Mexican War his skill as an engineer and his splendid conduct as a soldier won high praise from General Scott. When Vera Cruz fell, Scott said, "It is due to Lee's skill"; and at the storming of Chapultepec, Lee's services were so important that he was given the highest praise, and raised to the rank of colonel.

When he was forty-five years old, he went back to West Point as superintendent of the Academy, where he remained for three years. He extended the course of study and improved the institution in so many ways that for the first time it took rank with the best military schools in Europe.

Colonel Lee again saw active service on the Texan frontier, and later he was in command of the force sent against John Brown at Harper's Ferry. Meantime he had married Miss Mary Custis, daughter of George Washington's adopted son, and had settled at Arlington, a beautiful estate on the bank of the Potomac.

At the beginning of the Civil War the question, "Which side shall I take?" burned in many hearts, causing anxious days and sleepless nights. No man found this question harder to answer than Robert E. Lee. On the one side was the Union, under whose flag he had gallantly fought. On the other were his state, relatives, and friends. He wrote to his sister: "With all of my devotion to the Union, and the feeling of loyalty and devotion of an American citizen, I have not been able to make up my mind to raise my hand against my relatives, my children, my home. I hope I may never be called upon to draw my sword."

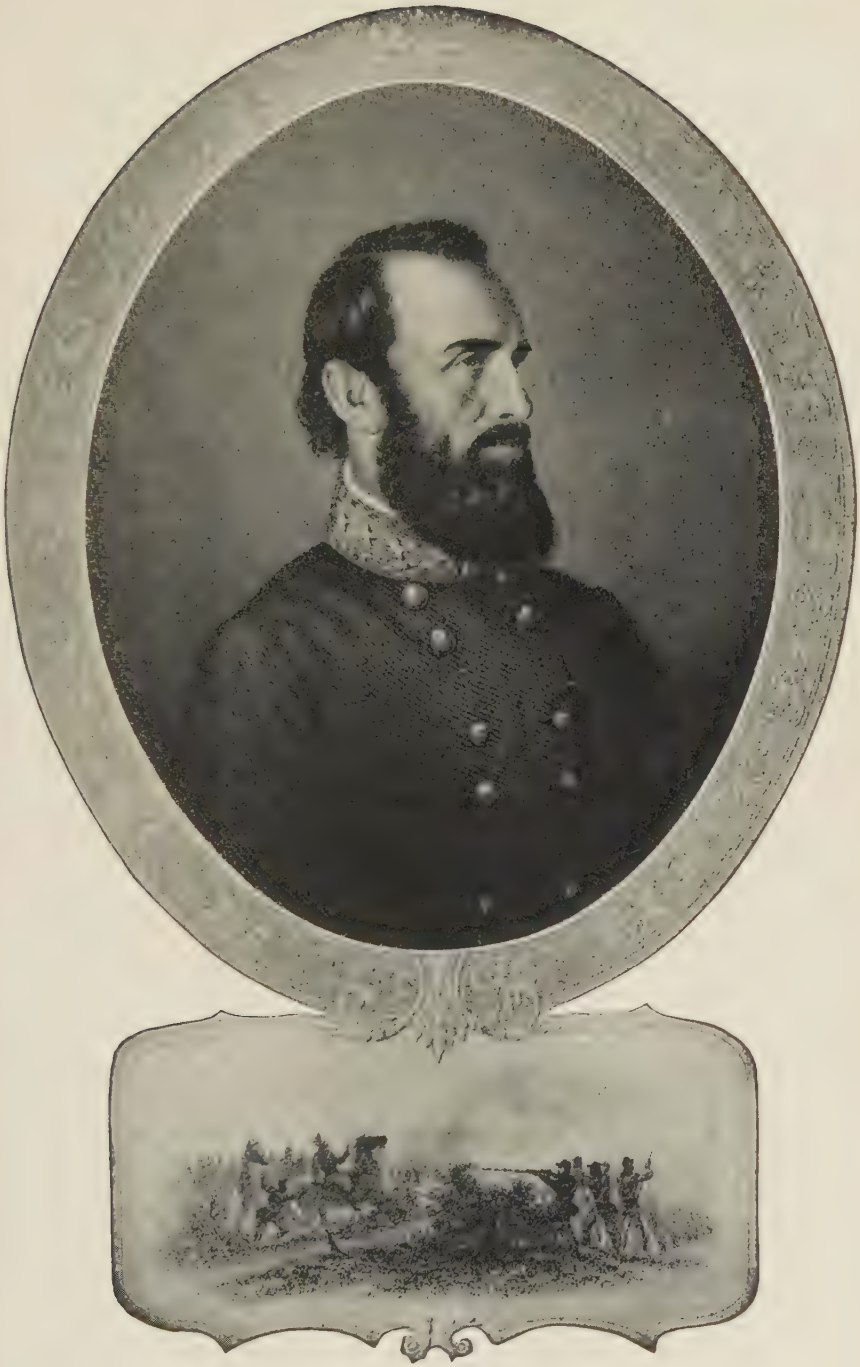
President Lincoln offered Lee the command of the Union forces, but he refused and resigned from the army. He hoped that the struggle would be a short one, and that his services would not be needed. But alas! the strife was long and bitter, and such ability as Lee possessed was so sorely needed by the South, that he could not resist her call.

In the summer of 1862 he was placed in charge of the Virginia troops, and was soon made commander of all the armies of the Confederacy. In the defense of Richmond, he showed great skill and bravery. With such able officers as Johnston, Jackson, Stuart, Hill, and Longstreet, he drove the Union forces, under McClellan, from their position. McClellan, with a splendid army, had marched down from Washington to take Richmond; but, though the Union forces laid siege to the city for seven long days, they could get near enough to see only the church steeples.

The northerners, however, had no idea of allowing the Confederates to hold Richmond if they could help it. It was believed then that the war would probably be fought out in the state of Virginia, and Richmond was its capital. Soon another Union army, under General Pope, threatened it. General Lee now sent Stonewall Jackson to meet this army, and Pope was defeated at the battle of Cedar Mountain. Then Lee moved his whole army, and in a bold attack upon the Union forces, defeated them in the battle of Manassas, generally known as the battle of Bull Run.

On December 13, 1862, General Burnside, who now commanded the "boys in blue" in place of McClellan, was defeated with great loss in the battle of Fredericksburg, while the loss to Lee's army was small. Burnside had set out for Richmond, and when he reached the Rappahannock saw Lee encamped on the heights of Fredericksburg in a strong position. Nevertheless, Burnside ordered an attack. His troops were ferried across the river and charged up the steep banks, while a withering fire of shot and shell "mowed them down like corn before the sickle."

General Hooker, who succeeded Burnside in 1863, determined to gain for the North all that had been lost. He crossed the Rappahannock above Fredericksburg, and at Chancellors-



GENERAL "STONEWALL" JACKSON

ville the two armies met in May. Again Lee was victorious, and the northern men were driven back with the heaviest loss inflicted on any Union army during the war.

In this battle Stonewall Jackson was killed. His real name was Thomas, but once in the crisis of a battle some one shouted, "See, there is Jackson standing like a stonewall!" From that time his firmness and courage were celebrated in the nickname. Another of Lee's most trusted officers was J. E. B. Stuart, a gallant young cavalry lieutenant, who had helped Lee in the attack on Harper's Ferry.

After the Union defeat at Chancellorsville the victorious Lee decided to move northward. With his army of eighty thousand men he swept past Washington and pressed on toward Gettysburg. We have already seen how he was defeated in this important battle by General Meade. Nevertheless, Lee conducted the campaign with great ability, and his retreat across the Potomac was managed with great skill.

For months Lee rested his troops on the banks of the Rapidan River, but the Confederate forces in the West had been terribly punished by General Grant. We know how, in the spring of 1864, Grant, with his immense army, crossed the Rapidan and was attacked by Lee in the Wilderness. Though the southerners numbered only fifty-five thousand, Lee inflicted a heavy loss upon the Union army, and he pushed on to Petersburg, where he again did great damage to the northern troops.

And now began the three hundred days' campaign that ended the frightful war. Lee's "boys in gray" were reduced to forty thousand, and with this small number he tried to protect forty miles of territory. The patient Grant, determined to end the war, kept "hammering" at Lee's ragged army until, in April, Lee knew that he must surrender. In a quiet house near the roadside he waited for his conqueror. When Grant entered the room, Lee rose, tall, gray-bearded, splendid in a spotless gray uniform, with his beautiful sword at his side. Grant, short in stature and round-shouldered, was in plain soldier's dress, with nothing but his shoulder straps to indicate that he was the commander of the whole Union army.

After the formalities of surrender, Lee rode back to his hungry army, and the men who had so nobly supported him gathered round their old commander and cheered. "Men," said the general, with tears in his eyes, "we have fought through the war together. I have done the best I could for you." And again cheers rent the air for the loved leader, and for peace, sweet peace. Lee then advised his men to make the best of their defeat, to go home, and become good citizens.

> "Fold up the banners! Smelt the guns!
> Love rules. Her gentler purpose runs."

Throughout the remainder of his life, General Lee used his great influence to help restore friendly feeling between the North and the South. He was made president of Washington College at Lexington, now Washington and Lee University, and there he died at the age of sixty-three. The North joined with the South in expressions of sorrow at the death of this modest, high-minded man, and brave general.

DAVID GLASGOW FARRAGUT — Born 1801 — Died 1870

Lashed to the mast that sways
  Over red decks,
Over the flame that plays
  Round the torn wrecks,
Over the dying lips
  Framed for a cheer,
Farragut leads his ships,
  Guides the line clear.

On by heights cannon-browed,
  While the spars quiver;
Onward still flames the cloud
  Where the hulks shiver.
See, yon fort's star is set,
  Storm and fire past.
Cheer him, lads,—Farragut,
  Lashed to the mast!

—MEREDITH'S "Farragut."

IT has been said of David Farragut: "He was an officer in the naval service of his government when most boys are still at their mother's apron strings or scribbling on their slates at school." Many of the lad's ancestors had been soldiers or sailors, and his father was an officer in the navy.

At Campbell Station, not far from Knoxville, Tennessee, David was born. He was eight years old when his father was transferred to New Orleans, and there Mrs. Farragut died of yellow fever, leaving five young children.

While David was still under nine years of age, his father's station was visited by the naval commander, David Porter. Mr. and Mrs. Porter took a great fancy to the boy and wished to adopt him. Mr. Farragut allowed him to decide the question for himself, and David, with a child's desire to see the world, sailed away from New Orleans with his new friends. He was placed at school, and a midshipman's commission was promised him when he should become ten years old.

The *Essex*, Captain Porter's ship, with young David Farragut as midshipman, found plenty of exciting work in the War of 1812; for Porter went on a cruise around Cape Horn looking for English vessels. David proved himself willing to work and to learn, and his elders found that they could trust him. You may judge how remarkable he was by the fact that Captain Porter gave the twelve-year-old boy command of a captured English vessel, with orders to take her to Valparaiso.

By his daring, ability, and trustworthiness, he had earned the right to be made a lieutenant; but it is not strange that the secretary of the navy found "Midshipman Farragut too young for promotion." So David was again placed at school. Not long afterward, however, he sailed with the American fleet that taught the pirates of Algiers to respect the rights of American vessels.

He was a little over eighteen when he was made lieutenant, and at twenty-four he was given charge of the frigate

Brandywine, which took Lafayette home from his visit to America. For four years he had charge of Mare Island navy yard in San Francisco Bay, and in 1858 was given command of the sloop-of-war *Brooklyn*. He became more and more able as a naval officer; he studied until he became master of several languages, and after forty-one years of service was made captain. He had sailed in almost all of the waters of the world, and was one of the finest officers in the naval service.

When war was declared between the North and the South, Captain Farragut was a man nearly sixty years old, and to him, as to so many others, came the query, "To which side shall I give my support?" He had been born in the South, had spent his early years there, and many of his southern friends had joined the Confederacy. What should he do? In Farragut's mind there was only one answer. He had entered his country's service at the age of ten. Under her flag he and his forefathers had fought, and under that flag would he continue to serve.

At Norfolk, where he was stationed at the outbreak of the war, he made no secret of his sympathy with the North. "You cannot live in Norfolk with such sentiments," said an acquaintance. "Very well," replied Farragut, "I can live somewhere else."

In 1862 he was given command of a squadron with instructions to blockade the Gulf of Mexico and capture New Orleans. The Union forces, under Commodore Foote, were guarding the upper part of the Mississippi. It was Farragut's difficult task to seize and hold the mouth of the river.

Never had so powerful a naval squadron sailed under the United States flag as that which, in the spring of 1862, left Hampton Roads to capture New Orleans. The fleet consisted of six steam frigates, sixteen gunboats, and twenty-six smaller craft.

For months the Confederates had been building batteries and forts to protect the harbor. But Farragut knew no fear. From his flagship *Hartford* he guided his fleet steadily forward, though the lines of Confederate batteries on both sides of the river kept up a steady stream of fire. Farther and farther up the stream he pressed, answering shot with shot. The Confederates set burning rafts afloat, and a blazing fire ship bore down on the *Hartford*. In order to avoid it, the flagship changed her course, and in doing so went aground. There was great excitement. Could anything save the ship? Naval men are trained to act quickly, and Farragut was born to command. While part of the crew fought the flames, the gunners kept up their steady volley on the forts. At last the fire was out, the ship floated, and once more the *Hartford* headed the column up the river.

This perilous journey was made under cover of the night. When morning dawned, bright and sunny, Farragut was safely above the forts, with only three vessels missing.

The victorious Farragut now demanded the surrender of the city. At the same time he issued a general order: "Eleven o'clock this morning is the hour appointed for the officers and crews of the fleet to return thanks to Almighty God for His great goodness and mercy in permitting us to pass through the events of the last two days with so little loss of life and blood." He ordered the United States flag to be hoisted on the mint in New Orleans. The people stood by, sullen and threatening, but Farragut warned them that at the first show of resistance his guns would open fire on the city. Once more he found himself in the country of his boyhood, the "con-

queror of his own people." "It is a strange thought," said he, "that I am here among my relatives, and yet no one has dared to say, 'I am glad to see you.' "

The next important work was the forcing of an entrance into Mobile Bay, to open it for the Union army. Strong forts protected the entrance, and torpedoes had been placed in the winding channels. Inside the harbor the ironclad ram *Tennessee* was waiting to attack any Union vessel that might escape the mines and get by the forts.

On the morning of August 5, 1864, Farragut was ready for the attack. Full well he knew the terrible dangers that lay before him, but the previous night he had written to his wife: "I am going into Mobile in the morning, if God is my leader, as I hope He is." When some one asked him if he did not dread the torpedoes and the ironclad, he replied: "I mean to be whipped or to whip my enemy, and not to be scared to death."

By seven o'clock the fighting had begun. In order that he might watch the battle better, Farragut climbed close to the maintop of the main rigging. As the shots flew thick and fast around him, the captain had Farragut lashed to the shrouds to prevent his falling, if wounded. Suddenly a torpedo exploded under the *Tecumseh*, not more than five hundred yards from the *Hartford*. The boat rolled heavily, then went down with its brave captain and all his crew.

This frightful disaster for a moment unnerved the commander of the *Brooklyn*. He brought his ship to a standstill, and warned the *Hartford* of a dangerous-looking object in the channel. But Farragut knew that the crisis had come. It would be victory now or never. "Go ahead, full speed!" he shouted, and his boat shot forward, while all the others followed. The torpedo cases knocked against the bottom of the ships, but did not explode and the fleet passed through in safety. Before ten o'clock the *Tennessee*, the only Confederate boat that had given chase, hauled down her flag in surrender. Farragut had destroyed the only remaining means of communication between the southerners and the outside world. There was now no important port along the entire coast in control of the Confederates.

When news of this victory reached the North, there was great rejoicing, and for days nothing was talked of but Farragut's capture of Mobile. As a reward for his distinguished services, Congress created the grade of admiral, and thus it happened that ten-year-old midshipman Farragut became, in the course of time, the first admiral in the United States navy. Honors were showered upon him in America, and when the war was over he went to Europe with his wife, where kings and nobles gave him royal welcome.

There were many other glorious victories won by our navy during the war. Among them were those of Captain Winslow, who, with his ship *Kearsarge*, sent the dreaded *Alabama* to the bottom of the ocean; and of Lieutenant Worden, who commanded the *Monitor* when it disabled the ironclad ram *Merrimac*. The *Monitor* was the first turret ship ever built, and the Confederates called it "a cheese box on a raft," because it was such a small, flat craft. But when they found that her shells could split and tear the *Merrimac's* plates, they considered it an awful messenger of death.

Then came the news that Lieutenant Cushing, only twenty-one years old had gone in a launch with a few men one dark night, and by placing a torpedo under the Confederate ironclad *Albemarle*, had completely destroyed

her. The crowning achievement was Farragut's victory at Mobile Bay.

In the autumn of 1868 Farragut fell ill. The navy department placed a vessel at his disposal to take him and his family to Portsmouth, New Hampshire. As the steamer entered the harbor, a salute was fired in the admiral's honor. "It would be well," said he, "if I died now in harness." Two years later he breathed his last. His body was brought to New York and laid at rest in Woodlawn Cemetery. Many monuments have been erected to his memory, but there is no other so beautiful as the one by St. Gaudens that stands in Madison Square, New York.

CYRUS HALL McCORMICK—Born 1809—Died 1884

Hush, ah, hush, the Scythes are saying,
Hush, and heed not, and fall asleep;
Hush, they say to the grasses swaying,
Hush, they sing to the clover deep!
Hush—'tis the lullaby Time is singing—
Hush, and heed not, for all things pass.
Hush, ah, hush! and the Scythes are swinging
Over the clover, over the grass!

—LANG's "Scythe Song."

THE name of Cyrus H. McCormick may be coupled with that of Eli Whitney: these men were the first inventors of important labor-saving machinery in the United States. Whitney's cotton gin brought wealth and prosperity to the South. First the National Road and the Erie Canal, then the railroad and the McCormick reaper, were responsible for the rapid march of progress in the West. It has been well said that, "Owing to Mr. McCormick's invention, the line of civilization moves westward thirty miles each year."

Cyrus H. McCormick was born on a farm in Walnut Grove, Virginia, in the year that Robert Fulton's steamboat made its first trip on the Hudson. His parents were Scotch-Irish, and his father, in addition to the farm, owned a gristmill and a blacksmith shop.

The little "field school" of the district offered the only educational advantages that he ever enjoyed. But he was fond of tools and inherited inventive genius from his father; for the elder McCormick had constructed a machine for reaping grain, though it proved unsuccessful in operation.

When Cyrus McCormick was a young man, there was no other way of cutting the golden grain or waving fields of grass except by hand. McCormick thoroughly understood what an immense saving of labor it would be to have this work done by machinery. When he was twenty-two years old, he built with his own hands the first practical reaping machine ever made.

This would cut a certain amount of grain under favorable conditions, but McCormick was far from satisfied with it. So he worked for three years more, improving first one part, then another, until by 1834, he had a machine which would cut even tangled grain, and work as easily when heavy rains had wet the fields as it would in dry weather.

McCormick foresaw that although his grain reapers would be used extensively on the farms of the East,

CYRUS HALL McCORMICK

they would be of yet greater service on the larger, level fields of the West. "Why manufacture machines in Virginia, and pay freight on them all the way to the West?" thought the practical young inventor. With a small sum of money in his pocket, he set out on horseback for Cincinnati, and there made arrangements for building his reapers.

Soon the wonderful labor saver was in such great demand that some one said: "The McCormick reaper has already contributed an annual income to the country of fifty-five millions of dollars at least, which must increase through all time."

In the year 1851 thousands of people from all over Europe flocked to London to see the great World's Fair. Hundreds of farmers came from England, Scotland, Ireland, France, and Germany, to witness the first trial of reapers in England. McCormick's machine was exhibited with others.

One day, about fifty miles from London, a test was made, and lines of farmers stood in a drenching rain to watch the actual trial. "It is all very well to see these gaily painted machines standing in the Crystal Palace," said they; "but it is quite a different matter to see them working in the fields."

The first reaper tried was made by an inventor named Hussey. It soon clogged and refused to work. Of course the by-standers laughed; it was such a fine chance to say, "We told you so." But along came the McCormick reaper, and in spite of all obstacles did its work perfectly. The onlookers forgot the rain in their enthusiasm, and gave three hearty cheers for the American invention. When the Englishmen found that with the McCormick reaper they could cut twenty acres of grain a day, the newspapers ceased to ridicule, and confessed that they had made a mistake.

In time McCormick moved his factory to Chicago, and it is claimed that the McCormick works today cover more than sixty acres of floor space. The machines are sent to all parts of the world, even to India and Siberia. It is impossible to estimate the value to America of the reaper, and of Mr. McCormick's later invention, the reaper and binder. They are said to save in labor more than one hundred million dollars every year.

There have been other great inventions for the saving of farm labor. The scythe no longer sings through the grass; the mowing machine has taken its place. Farmers do not thresh grain by spreading it on the barn floor and pounding it with a heavy wooden flail; threshing machines now do that work. A threshing machine will produce between six and seven hundred bushels of wheat in the same length of time that one man with a flail would thresh ten bushels. Only a few men, therefore, are required to cultivate hundreds of acres of land and to harvest the crops.

Mr. McCormick died at Chicago in 1884, and his great business is now carried on by his sons. He was an upright, generous man, who gave liberally to educational, charitable, and religious institutions. Prizes and medals were heaped upon him and when he was nearly seventy years old, the French Academy of Science made him a member, "because," the Academy said, "he has done more for the cause of agriculture than any other living man."

Blacksmith shop where McCormick built the first reaper.

Model of the McCormick reaper of 1831 in use. It required a boy to ride the horse, a man to rake off the grain and two others to bind the bundles. The capacity of this outfit was six acres a day.

McCormick-Deering 15-30 tractor pulling a McCormick-Deering 10-foot power drive binder—the power from the tractor operates the mechanism of the binder. The capacity of this outfit is twenty-five to thirty acres a day.

SAMUEL PIERPONT LANGLEY — Born 1834 — Died 1906

For I dipt into the future far as human eye could see,
Saw the Vision of the world, and all the wonder that would be;
Saw the heavens fill with commerce, argosies of magic sails,
Pilots of the purple twilight, dropping down with costly bales;
Heard the heavens fill with shouting, and there rained a ghastly dew
From the nations' airy navies grappling in the central blue.
—TENNYSON'S "Locksley Hall."

A college professor was speaking. "Why, you can no more do that than fly," said he. Then he checked himself. "I will have to revise that statement, will I not," said he, "for now it is not difficult to fly."

The old comparison dates back far in our language, but flying was begun within the last thirty years. There are great names in the history of flying—Bleriot, the Wrights, Farnham, Santos-Dumont, Curtiss, but the father of all was Samuel Pierpont Langley.

Like so many other great Americans, he had many interests. He was born in Boston in August, 1834. After graduation from the Boston Latin School (one of the first great public high schools), he studied to be an architect and an engineer. From this work he turned to astronomy. In 1865 he was one of the assistants in the Harvard Observatory. Next we hear of him as professor of Mathematics in the Naval Academy of the United States, and soon after that he became director of the Allegheny Observatory.

The next twenty years greatly increased his fame for knowledge of all things scientific. Engineer, architect, physicist, astronomer, inventor, it was not at all strange that the great Smithsonian Institution in Washington should call him to be its secretary.

His work in bringing out the hitherto invisible rays of the sun in what is called the spectrum would be enough to put him in the hall of fame. He was the first man to measure the exact heat of the sun, by means of his bolometer, an instrument which marked differences of a ten-thousandth of a degree on a thermometer.

Once in Washington, he had leisure time to spend on his inventions. He had been filled with the idea that man could learn to fly. Watching the gliding of birds, he made up his mind that a machine could be made which would imitate them. For nine years he tried one model after another.

At last, on May 6, 1896, he was ready for his experiment. A little flying machine, fitted up with a steam-driven motor, was sent off from a houseboat on the Potomac River. It was too light to carry a man, as it weighed only twenty-four pounds all told, but it flew! For over a minute this first heavier-than-air machine sailed over the water, defying the power of the earth to pull it down. Then, its fuel all burned up, it gently glided down and rested upon the waters of the Potomac.

Langley, the scientist, considered that he had completed his work, "the demonstration of the practicability of mechanical flight," and he felt that the nation should look to others to develop the invention commercially. He refused to take out patents or in any way to make money from his invention.

The Spanish War came on soon afterwards and Langley persuaded the Government that his flying machine

would have been very useful to the armies in Cuba. He was given $50,000 to devise such a machine. The gasoline engine was just coming to be known and Langley made up his mind that it was best suited, after all, for his flying.

By the fall of 1903, he was ready to launch the first big machine which attempted to carry a man. The main problem was how to take off. Professor Langley solved it by shooting his machine from the top of a houseboat by means of springs. By this time the rumor of what was being tried had gotten around and a large number of people gathered and made sarcastic remarks about the poor old scientist who had not learned the lesson of Darius Green.

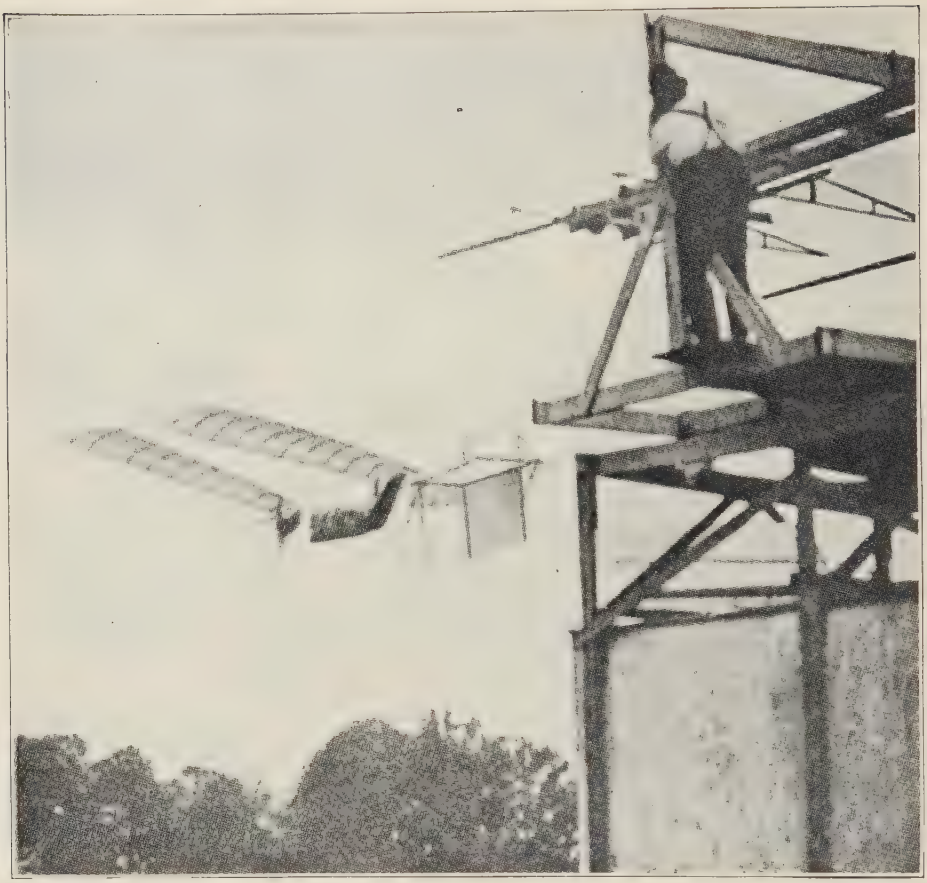
The signal was given, the springs were released, and the machine shot forward. There was the whir of the propeller, the roar of the engine, and then it plunged swiftly downward into the waters of the Potomac. A guy post had caught in the launching car. A roar of laughter went up from the spectators.

Somewhat daunted but still sure that he was right, Langley tried again. On the eighth of December, a trial was again made, but a second time the launching machinery went wrong and the rear end of the flyer was broken before it struck the air. The newspapers heralded the failure of "Langley's Folly," but they and the crowds did not know the difference between success and failure. The engineers and scientists present knew that what had failed was not the flying machine itself, but merely the launching device, a comparatively small matter in principle. The machine itself did not fail for it had not had even a trial. Dr. Bell and Nikola Tesla declared that Langley had proved that with successful launching the machine itself would be a success. But experiments take money. There was no more forthcoming and a little later Langley died without seeing his flying machine fly.

Although he did not know it, his work was living after him. The Wright brothers in Ohio declared frankly that his work was the inspiration of their early days. Soon after Wilbur and Orville Wright left high school they began experimenting with large kites, and then with still larger ones which carried a man for ballast. They glided great distances from the tops of hills.

Not receiving enough support from the people around Dayton, they betook themselves to a part of North Carolina which was sparsely settled and where no prying eyes of newspaper reporters could discover their secret before they were ready to give it out. They had learned well Langley's lesson, but they had improved on his method of taking off. Instead of shooting the machine from a catapult, they put little bicycle wheels under it and let it roll along the ground until it had speed enough to carry it up into the air. On December 17, 1903, the Wrights' biplane first carried a man aloft at Kittyhawk, N. C. From this time on, their progress was rapid. Their machine stayed aloft three minutes, ten minutes, half an hour. Where their own countrymen had scoffed at them, the French received them with open arms. Gold medals and prizes were showered upon them. Truly, the prophet was not without honor, save in his own country.

Another American, Glenn Curtiss, followed in their wake. He, too, was making flying machines of a different style, but still all based upon the principles that Samuel Langley worked out.



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THE LANGLEY MACHINE OF 1896

A photograph taken at the moment of launching Langley's flying machine, May 6, 1896.

Meanwhile, "Langley's Folly" had been fished out of the Potomac River and had hung for ten years in the National Museum as a curiosity. One day Mr. Curtiss came in to have a look at it. He studied it carefully from every angle. "I believe," said he, "that the old machine will fly. Langley's mistake was in shooting it from the top of his houseboat. Let me see what I can do with it." The government gave him permission to take it away. He put fresh canvas upon it, for the old wings were pretty well rotted. He replaced the broken wires and slipped in a new gasoline motor. Bicycle wheels were added underneath to give it a chance to take off, and, in the year 1914, at Hammondsport, N. Y., the old "Folly" rose and soared among the clouds.

Since 1918, the 1903 machine of Langley has hung in the National Museum where it carries this legend:

LANGLEY AERODROME
The original Samuel Pierpont Langley
Flying Machine of 1903, Restored
Deposited by the Smithsonian
Institution

Nearby hang the Langley flyers of 1896 to 1903, tributes to the great scientist who dared to face ridicule to promote man's conquest of the air.

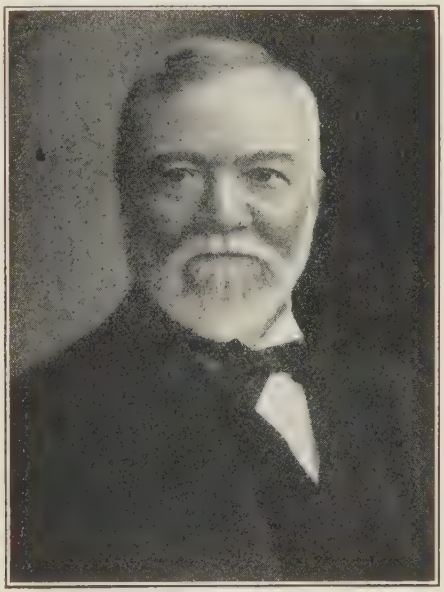
ANDREW CARNEGIE—Born 1835—Died 1919

I love vast libraries; yet there is a doubt,
If one be better with them than without,
Unless he use them wisely, and, indeed,
Knows the high art of what and how to read.
—J. G. SAXE's, "The Library."

"WHEN I was a boy in my teens," said Andrew Carnegie, "Colonel Anderson, whose memory I must ever revere, had a few hundred books. He gave notice that he would lend these books every Saturday afternoon to boys and young men. You cannot imagine with what anxiety some of us who embraced this opportunity to obtain knowledge looked forward to every Saturday afternoon when we could get one book exchanged for another." These were the words of the great "iron-master," whose love of reading and belief that all people should have the chance to read the best caused him to give a large portion of his fortune for public libraries, where boys and girls and men and women might secure books on any subject. The story of this man who came to America as a poor boy, who became for his time one of the world's richest men and likewise one of its greatest benefactors, is one that should be told and retold as an example of the right use of time, money and power.

Andrew Carnegie was born in a little town in Scotland. He came to America with his parents when he was thirteen years old. His family needed help and he entered a cotton factory as a weaver's assistant. Later he studied telegraphy and secured a position with a railroad company. He served in this capacity for many years, rising to be a division superintendent. The Civil War found him especially equipped for management and he served throughout the war in charge of a division of the military railways and telegraphs.

Investments in the Woodruff Sleeping Car Company and in oil lands in Pennsylvania had brought Carnegie



ANDREW CARNEGIE

considerable money. With the close of the Civil War he entered actively into the development of various iron works. He founded at Pittsburgh the Keystone Bridge Works and the Union Iron Works. He organized vast enterprises of iron and steel manufactures under his control. Among the many achievements of his genius was the introduction from England of the Bessemer method of making steel, just

then invented. This was a scientific process which made possible the manufacture of steel from iron on a large scale. Previous to that time the making of steel was so expensive that it could not be successfully manufactured. Practically all tools, rails and machinery were of iron, which lacked the strength and hardness of steel. With the new methods there was a revolution in the iron business; steel became the principal material for railroads, bridge building and construction work.

A CARNEGIE LIBRARY

The Carnegie Library in Washington, D. C. is but one of many libraries which Andrew Carnegie helped to build.

It was one of the great factors in the success of Carnegie that he sought everywhere in the world for the best that his engineers and scientists could find that would in any way benefit the business. He believed that business men and workers should study everything that was known about a given subject and use it for improvement. Thus, he became one of the greatest manufacturers and leaders of business in America.

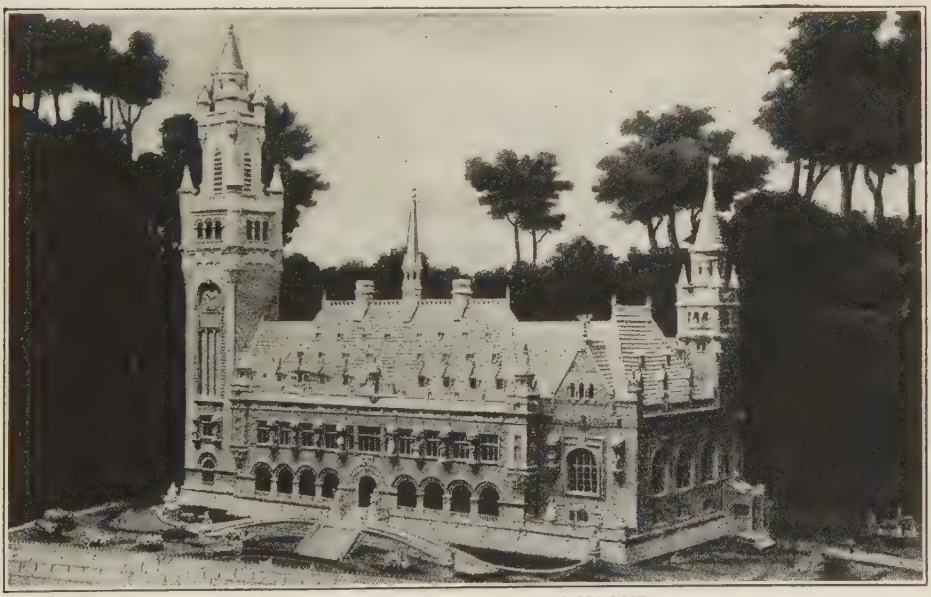
But it was not as a manufacturer or as a rich man that Andrew Carnegie is known to us. Many men who have been successful manufacturers have not attained fame; many thousands of men have become millionaires and a few have become rich far beyond the riches of Carnegie, yet most of them have been forgotten as soon as they passed off the stage of active life. Not so with Carnegie; his fame will live for centuries beyond his time for his great service was to mankind of all generations. He was not great for his success in making steel nor for his money, but rather for the use to which he put the millions he had made. Wealth, in his mind, should not be acquired for one's own selfish uses. "Wealth is stewardship" was the message which he gave to his fellow men. He believed that men should use their wealth for the public good. Soon he announced that he would give away his money in his lifetime, for he thought it would be "a disgrace to die rich." And so from the time of his retirement from active business in 1901, to his death in 1919, he spent his time in the distribution of his wealth in such ways as to do the greatest amount of good. Herein lies the greatness of the man. He did not give his money for things that would not last, but rather for purposes which will live forever.

Andrew Carnegie gave buildings to house libraries, supported by taxes, on land furnished by the people. Everybody knows the Carnegie libraries. They give joy and education to millions. When we look at the lines of children and adults waiting for books with eager interest, or see books packed in arms, we perceive what a great idea was in the mind of Andrew Carnegie. He believed in the value of books and thought everybody should read, not merely about his business but of the best literature of the world. He even advised business men to read fiction, saying that nothing is so restful as a good story. Speaking of books he once said: "There is no human arrangement so powerful for good, there is no benefit that can be bestowed upon a community so great as that which places within the reach of all the treasures of the world which are stored

up in books." And to a large gathering of working people he said: "Most anxious to give you the best advice in my power, I advise you to cultivate a taste for reading."

With such views it was natural that Carnegie should turn to the neglected world of books and organize it through libraries. He gave two thousand library buildings to cities and towns throughout the country, always with the agreement that the cities and towns would maintain them. We of this generation can scarcely imagine the time when there were no libraries. When we go to the public library today for works of science, history, or fiction, or for boys' or girls' stories, we should think of the little Scotch boy whose love of books caused him to use his fortune for the promotion of reading.

Andrew Carnegie looked upon books as the greatest source of education for the common people, but he also believed in the college and the university. Naturally, since his business was built on science, he thought most of scientific education. He had made his fortune by the employment of scientists who had worked out the problems of making steel. He, therefore, gave liberally to scientific education in his own city of Pittsburgh, founding there the Carnegie Institute for technical education. He established the Carnegie Institution of Washington "to encourage in the broadest and most liberal manner investigation, research and discovery, and the application of knowledge to the improvement of mankind." He gave to colleges throughout the country and in his native and much loved Scotland. Finally he established a large fund, the income of which is used for the pensioning of teachers who have grown old in the service of education in colleges. Thus, men have been able to give their lives to education with a certainty that they would not be left in poverty in old age.



THE PEACE PALACE AT THE HAGUE

Built by Andrew Carnegie for the International Court of Arbitration. In addition, Mr. Carnegie created the $10,000,000 Carnegie Endowment for International Peace.

In his search for great objects for which to give his money, Mr. Carnegie was very wise. He sought for those things that would inspire and also be permanent. When we read every little while of the granting of a hero medal to somebody who has done some heroic act in the saving of human life, we are reminded of another of the great gifts of Carnegie. He created a large permanent fund, the income from which is being used for the rewarding of heroes in everyday life. He believed in peace and used his fortune and his influence for the prevention of war. The magnificent Peace Palace at The Hague, where the International Court of Arbitration now sits, was his gift. Besides this, he left a fund, the income from which is devoted to the promotion of peace and the prevention of war.

The goal which Mr. Carnegie announced after his retirement from business—to dispose of his fortune before his death — was not fully achieved. There were many millions still left as he approached the end of his life and he placed these millions in a permanent endowment fund to be administered after his death for the same great causes which he had aided in his lifetime. Thus it is that his works are made permanent through the Carnegie Foundation, which holds the funds and distributes the income for the purposes which Andrew Carnegie held dear.

Andrew Carnegie was a successful man. He made money. He performed a great service in manufacturing and became wealthy beyond the dreams of his time; but he was more successful still in the ways in which he left his wealth for the good of men and women and for boys and girls of all generations.

SAMUEL GOMPERS—Born 1850—Died 1924

No man is born into the world whose work
Is not born with him; there is always work,
And tools to work withal, for those who will;
And blessed are the horny hands of toil!
—Lowell's, "A Glance Behind the Curtain."

To be the leader of a team or of a class is an honor. To be the leader of a political party or of a great organization is an achievement. Everybody, young and old, loves a leader. That was why Samuel Gompers was revered by millions of men and why the memory of him will last. He was the leader of an industrial army numbering millions of working men. Not only that but he retained his leadership without interruption year after year for almost half a century.

Leadership does not come easily to anyone; it must be won by ability and hard work. He who would be a leader and keep his leadership must not expect a bed of ease. When he was a boy Samuel Gompers was called "sleepy head" because, as he said, "Mother could not get me up in the morning or keep me out of bed in the evening. Perhaps I was stowing away sleep for later years when I slept only when there was nothing else to do."

Samuel Gompers was born in London in 1850, of Jewish parents who had migrated from Holland. He was a cigar-maker by trade, an occupation which he learned in his early boyhood. At the age of thirteen he came to the

United States with his parents, and at twenty-one he became a citizen of his adopted country. He arrived in America while the Civil War was in progress and Lincoln was President. To the events of the war and his veneration for Lincoln may be credited the intense love which he had for the land of his adoption. He saw the coming of freedom to millions of slaves

GOMPERS' BOYHOOD HOME

Here, at No. 2 Fort Street, London, England, Samuel Gompers lived until he came to the United States with his parents, July 29, 1863.

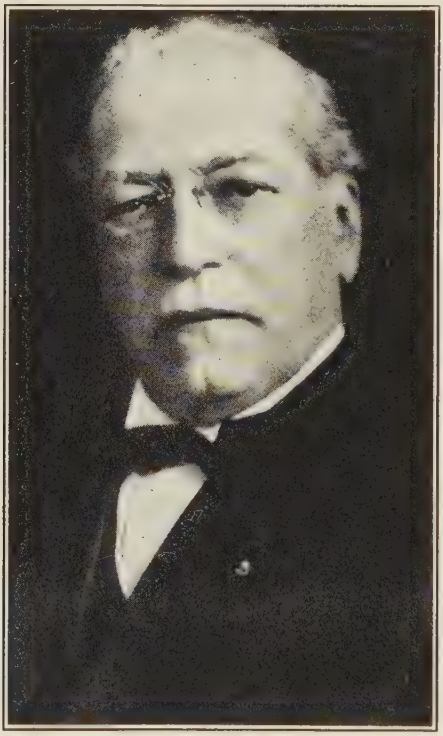
in the Emancipation Proclamation, and he dreamed of the reign of justice for all men. No one can understand the life of this man unless he appreciates how intense was his love of justice. That love caused him to seek a better life for laboring men. From early boyhood every act of his life, every thought of his mind, every wish of his heart was for the betterment of labor. He saw very early that if labor were to be bettered it must be organized. He worked for labor unions wherein laborers could join with others of their craft to improve the conditions under which they worked, shorten their hours of labor, increase their wages, and do other things for their common benefit.

In 1886 he was a leader in founding the American Federation of Labor, familiarly known as the A. F. of L., and excepting for one year, was the directing head until his death. Before that time men had dreamed of a great labor union of all kinds of laborers. Another organization, the Knights of Labor, became for a short time a very powerful union of workers of all trades. It was not easy, however, to hold together in one union men of many trades. Young Gompers saw that and decided that the best arrangement would be to organize the workers by trades and bring together these separate trade unions into a federation of all. Thus, carpenters, bricklayers, cigarmakers would join a union of their respective crafts, and representatives of the different unions would meet in a federation for the consideration of problems that concerned them all. The idea proved workable and the A. F. of L. increased in numbers and in influence. A few large trade unions have remained outside the Federation, although coöperating in its aim; but the bulk of skilled labor united under the banner of the Federation and the leadership of Samuel Gompers who, at the age of thirteen, as we have seen, was a poor cigarmaker in London.

The A. F. of L. came into a troubled industrial world, a world of misunderstandings and of passions. When labor began to assert its rights to have a voice in deciding what wages should be paid, or how long its working hours should be, bitter contests arose. Some-

times strikes resulted which were intense in the hatreds they brought forth.

No one today doubts the evil conditions against which Gompers arrayed the hosts of labor. Hours were long, even to twelve or fourteen a day. Wages were whatever the employers chose to give, whether enough to support a family or not. Men were compelled to work in dangerous and insanitary places. Little children were



SAMUEL GOMPERS

put into mills and mines and worked long hours to their own destruction, for the greed of others. Women were employed in the hardest kinds of toil, even that of mines, and under conditions that were revolting.

The American labor movement, under Gompers' lead, struck at all of these evil conditions and in doing so incurred the hatred of those who profited by them.

Mistakes were made on all sides, but after a contest of nearly fifty years we see the results standing out clearly above the smoke of the battle. Here are some of the results: Child labor has been prohibited in most of the states and children have been given the opportunity in the schools to secure a preparation for life. The employment of women in occupations dangerous to their health has been prohibited. The eight-hour day has been quite generally set as the proper standard of working time, men being able to give no more than that regularly without harm to their bodies and minds. Wages have been considerably advanced, but more important still, the workers have come to have a voice in deciding the price for which they will sell their labor. Men now bargain collectively with their employers and agree upon the wages to be received. The conditions under which men work have been improved. Dangerous machines have been guarded and the health of the workers is better protected. Perhaps the most important of all good things accomplished is the provision by law that when a man is injured in industry he receives, while he is disabled, a part of his wages and necessary medical care.

We accept these improvements today as a matter of course, but we think all too little of the struggles by which they were brought about. They seem like measures of simple justice but when they were first advanced the attacks upon them were violent. They were called names such as "socialistic," "anarchistic," and "un-American." One can hardly understand the hatreds that were created when measures so obviously just as the child labor laws, safety laws, eight-hour laws, and similar acts were put

forth. Labor leaders were painted as foes of law and order, destroyers of our economic society, dangerous radicals who selfishly sought their own ends.

Samuel Gompers was the leader of labor through all of these reforming years and bore the brunt of attack, for he was foremost in the battle line. Perhaps no man has ever had more abuse heaped upon him, and yet most of the things for which he was assailed have long since become settled law or practice, and we all call them good. Should it not be a lesson to us to try to understand those who are reviled to see whether the abuse is just or whether it springs from selfish men who by abuse cover up their own selfish ends?

Probably Gompers' greatest strength in trying times was his ability to control himself. He schooled his angry feelings and kept them within bounds. It was his lifetime purpose not to lose his head. As a boy he saw his grandfather in a rage over nothing at all and he said to himself, "Sam, that's you and that isn't good." From that day he said he determined "to become master of myself." And he succeeded.

Among other things for which he was abused was his firmness in upholding the right of free speech, free press and freedom of assemblage. He would risk going to jail in defense of those rights, for he knew that if men could not assemble, speak or write freely, their liberty was doomed. Samuel Gompers was a firm supporter of justice. He would fight and die for a just cause—that was why people loved him; that was why he held leadership so long. Even to his seventy-fourth year he kept up the fight against injustice.

Samuel Gompers was intensely patriotic, with a patriotism based on his belief in justice. When the World War broke out he led the forces of labor in support of the Government. Time after time he headed committees and commissions to promote the winning of the war, and he did much work abroad with labor organizations of the allied countries in the promotion of the aims of our country and the allied nations. No man served more wholeheartedly and with such power as did he in those stirring years. It was to him more than a national contest—it was an emancipation of men and of labor from the control of autocracy. Out of the World War he expected a better day for the human beings who toil.

Men loved Samuel Gompers with the love of a brother for a brother, or a child for its father. He was familiarly known as "the old man," a term of endearment on the part of the millions who followed him. He fought a hard fight; he gave blow for blow, but always for justice. He died with the respect of all men and with the love of millions of his fellowworkers.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT—Born 1858—Died 1919

So lived this man, and died and lives again—
A white dynamic memory in the land.
Oh! what a heritage, my countrymen!
He'll plead forever now, with voice and hand,
Our righteous causes, and his power will grow,
Cease tolling, bell, and let the bugles blow!

—Samuel Valentine Cole.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT was one of the most interesting characters of modern American life. He was born in New York, and although most of his life was spent in New York City and the East, no man connected with American public life in recent years was so thoroughly in sympathy with the spirit of America and so highly regarded throughout the entire country for his sterling qualities and his Americanism.

On his father's side his ancestors were Dutch, born since the first Klaes Martensen van Roosevelt's coming to America, on Manhattan Island. His mother's people were predominantly Scotch, although of Huguenot and English descent. His mother, Martha Bullock, was a Georgian, her people having come from South Carolina before the Revolution. Of his father Theodore Roosevelt once wrote, "He was the best man I ever knew. He combined strength and courage with gentleness and tenderness and great unselfishness. He would not tolerate in us children selfishness or cruelty, idleness, cowardliness or untruthfulness. As we grew older, he made us understand that the same standard of clean living was demanded for the boys as for the girls."

On October 27, 1858, Theodore Roosevelt was born at 28 East 20 Street, New York City, in the house in which he lived during the time that he and his two sisters and brother were small children. Recently this house has been purchased and will be refurnished as nearly as possible as it was when Theodore Roosevelt was born there. Young Theodore came to know New York City intimately, but the most interesting thing to him was the country, in which all his summers were spent. He says in his *Autobiography*, "We children loved the country beyond anything; we despised the city. We were always wildly eager to go to the country when spring came and very sad when in the late fall the family moved back to town."

Theodore was a delicate child suffering from asthma and had to be taken away to places where he could breathe more easily. He went very little to school but for a few months attended a private school on the street near his home. Most of the time his education was derived from tutors. When he was ten years old, he made his first journey to Europe. Of this trip abroad, he says, "I do not think I gained anything from it. Our one desire was to get back to America." However four years later when he went to Europe again he seems to have derived much profit from it. About this time he began to take an interest in natural history. He said in later life that he could distinctly remember the day when he started on his career as a zoologist. "I was walking up Broadway and as I passed the market to which I used to be sent sometimes before breakfast to get strawberries

THREE GENERATIONS OF ROOSEVELTS

It was Wordsworth who wrote "the child is father of the man" and verily in this happy gathering of the Roosevelt family it is so. Can you imagine how this great American family must feel to be the proud possessors of a service flag with three stars, shown in the photo in the hands of Richard Derby, Jr., for three sons who fought Democracy's cause overseas.

One, Quentin, gave his life; another, Archie, was wounded. The third star is for Theodore, Jr.

The group is composed of Theodore Roosevelt's grandson, the baby of Archie, Theodore Roosevelt, Captain Archie's wife, Richard Derby, Jr., Mrs. Roosevelt, and Baby Edith Derby on the lap of her mother, Ethel Roosevelt Derby.

I suddenly saw a dead seal laid out on a slab of wood. That seal filled me with a strong feeling of romance and adventure. As long as it remained there I haunted the market day after day." It seems that from that day on the main interest of life to Theodore Roosevelt was in natural history. As a boy he made a number of collections, as a young man he wrote descriptions of animals and the various adventures; as a man he hunted and became well acquainted with distinguished naturalists; and as a man in later life he seems to have retained this as a great abiding interest.

On his second trip to Europe in the winter of '72 and '73, he went to Egypt, journeyed up the Nile, traveled over the Holy Land, visited Greece and Constantinople. His first real collecting as a student of natural history was done in Egypt during this journey. Some of the birds which he collected during this trip along the Nile and in Palestine were afterwards sent to the Smithsonian Institution in Washington.

In the fall of 1876 he entered Harvard College and graduated in 1880. His course at Harvard was not particularly distinguished, although as he says, his standing was within the first tenth of his class. While at Harvard he had not thought of going into public life but fully intended to make science his life work. He was not agreeably disposed toward the science as taught in the University because he thought that the teachers were not sufficiently interested in the out-of-doors and too much interested in specialization. After his college course, he was more than ever interested in out-of-door sports, especially horse-back riding, partly because he liked it and partly because he said his health demanded some regular form of exercise such as walking, climbing or horse-back riding. He never engaged in any sport as if that were the most important thing in life. It was simply to him a form of training for something else. As he says, sports should never be allowed to take the place of work and a life devoted merely to play is a form of existence most dismal.

After he had left Harvard behind he turned to law but soon found that this was not to be a congenial profession for him. He became interested immediately in politics, but not as a career. He always believed that one should have some other occupation to which he would resort if out of office. In the fall of 1881 he was elected to the legislature of New York and was the youngest member of this body. In connection with this first elective office, he was fond of telling a bit of advice which a "hard-headed old country man" gave him and from which he said he derived much good in after years. "Don't speak until you are sure you have something to say, and know just what it is; then say it, and sit down." It was soon apparent that in whatever group Roosevelt found himself he was certain to be conspicuous. What he did in his early service in the New York legislature was of a piece with what he did in his future career.

In 1883 Roosevelt went into the West and took charge of two cattle ranches on the Little Missouri. This life was a great experience for him, beginning, as he said, on the morning of a clear September day. It would be difficult to estimate the value to Roosevelt of his experience in Cow-Boy Land, both physically and socially. He found life in the open stimulating and enjoyable and many times refers to thrilling episodes and to beautiful scenes when he was alone in the night on the wide plains. By way of appreciation, he once wrote, "I owe more

than I can ever express to the West, which of course means to the men and women whom I met in the West."

In the spring of 1889, Roosevelt was appointed by President Harrison as Civil Service Commissioner. For nearly five years he was not very active in political life, although he had run for mayor of New York and had been defeated. He served for six years as Commissioner under President Harrison and President Cleveland. His record in this capacity was excellent and was altogether for the good of the service. He always looked upon a position as an opportunity to serve, not as a mere place to make oneself comfortable. In those days the position of Civil Service Commissioner was no sinecure as public opinion had not come around so generally to it and the bosses were still in control.

In the spring of '95, Mayor Strong of New York City appointed Theodore Roosevelt as Police Commissioner and afterwards as President of the Police Commission. It was in this position that Roosevelt attracted the attention of the country for his unusual methods and his thorough efficiency. He made a position which was scarcely known, one to be talked about everywhere. It was while he was connected with the New York police that he met Jacob Riis and many other men who were giving their lives to the great social problems in New York City.

In 1897 President McKinley appointed Roosevelt as Assistant Secretary of the Navy. Ever since his boyhood he had been interested in naval affairs. His first book, published immediately after his graduation from Harvard, was a history of the Naval War of 1812. While in this position, the Spanish War began and it was that memorable telegram which really, according to Admiral Dewey, constituted the first real step in the war. Roosevelt ordered the squadron to Hongkong to prepare for operations in the Philippine Islands.

Soon after this he resigned his position as Assistant Secretary of the Navy and with Army Surgeon Leonard Wood, organized a company of cavalry which soon became known as the "Rough Riders" and saw active service in Cuba. For his brilliant work in this conflict, he was given a colonelcy and achieved great popularity, so that when it was a question of the candidate on the Republican ticket for the governorship of New York, Roosevelt was the unanimous choice. He was elected Governor by a large majority and rendered such brilliant service that it was soon apparent that there was a new figure in national politics. As from the beginning he was always trying to establish a government of the people and to do away with the machine rule. During his administration some very excellent laws were passed dealing with the tenement houses, civil service, conservation and insurance. In 1900 it was apparent that President McKinley would be nominated for a second term. There was considerable discussion as to the person for the vice-presidency. Finally the choice settled upon Theodore Roosevelt and he was unanimously selected. McKinley was inaugurated March 4, 1901, and in the following September was shot by an anarchist in the city of Buffalo. President McKinley lived only a few days, being succeeded by Roosevelt who took the oath of office in a private house in Buffalo. Roosevelt served the remainder of that term and in November, 1904, was elected by a large majority for another term. During his tenure of office a number of important measures were passed. Perhaps one of the greatest achievements was the beginning of the Panama Canal which was completed in the adminis-

tration of President Taft. Roosevelt championed many measures for the preservation of forests, for laws dealing with the control of large industrial corporations, for the foreign policy which increased the respect for America in foreign countries. He always felt that the two greatest services he had rendered during his term of office were the sending of the fleet around the world and the conclusion of the Russo-Japanese War which he was, in a large measure, instrumental in concluding.

After his presidency, the popularity and power of Roosevelt increased rather than diminished. His advice was sought on many questions. He traveled, first in Africa and later in South America, and wrote interesting accounts of both journeys, was invited to give lectures at the great universities in France and England, and was perhaps the most sought after man of his time. His last great service was most worthy of his career, his insistence upon true Americanism, upon loyalty to one flag, upon the need for America to stand as one man against the oppression of the militaristic German Empire. Only a few hours before he died, on Monday morning, January 6, 1919, he wrote the following words which fittingly conclude any appreciation of this fine type of American:

"Any man who says he is an American, but something else also, isn't an American at all. We have room for but one flag, the American flag, which symbolizes all wars in behalf of liberty and civilization, just as much as it excludes any foreign flag of a nation to which we are hostile. We have room for but one soul loyalty, and that is loyalty to the American people."

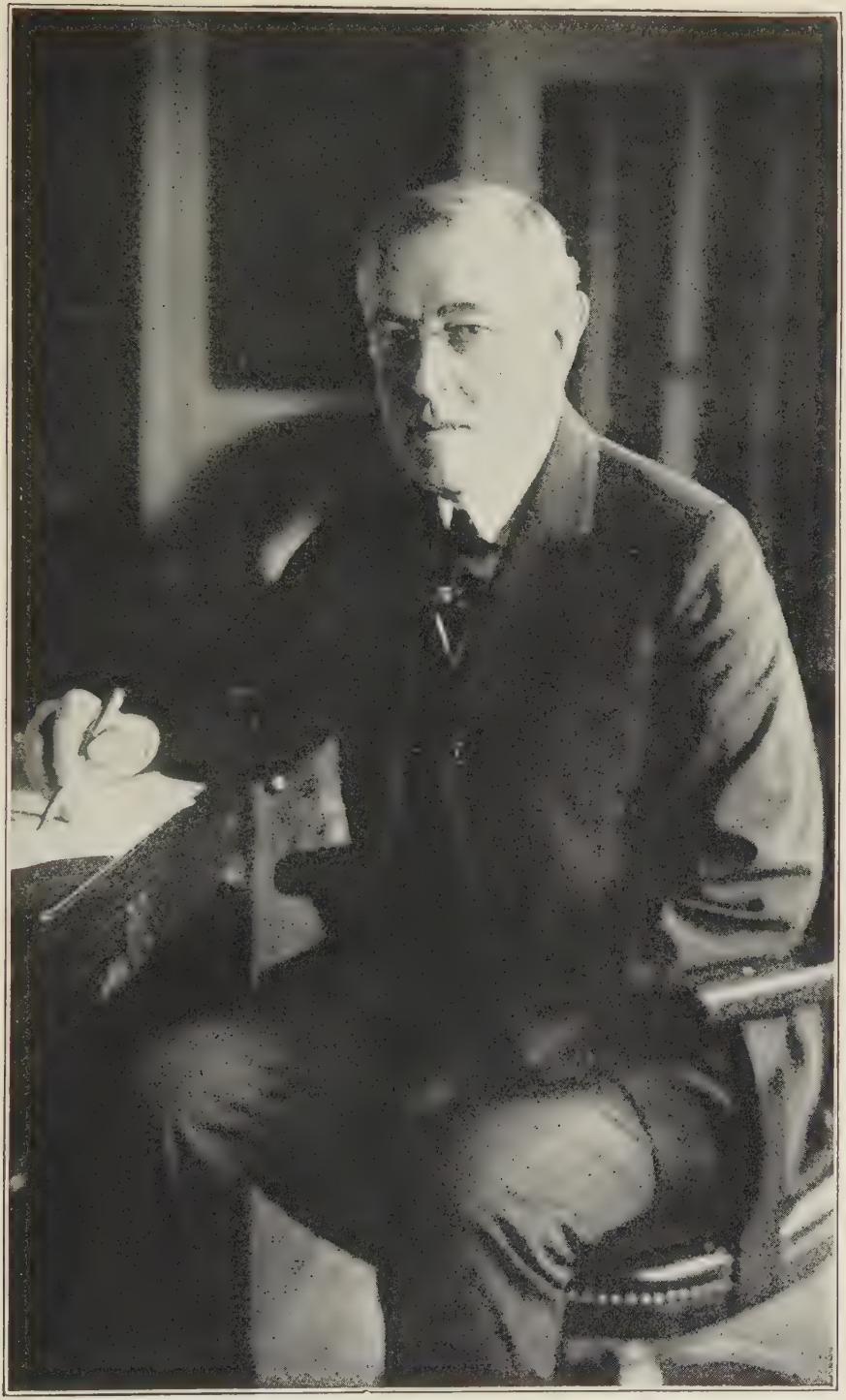
WOODROW WILSON—Born 1856—Died 1924

For you the trump of victory is blown;
To you the land shall turn in joy and stress,
And he that will not say "God Speed" must own
To loving party more and Country less.
Our scholar statesman, free of petty hate,
Of lucid thought, clean speech and golden pen,
The happy lot be yours to serve the state
And win by worthy deeds the love of man.

IT has grown to be a habit among our presidents, upon reaching manhood, to drop the first names given to them in their youth. Thus Stephen Grover Cleveland became plain Grover. John Calvin Coolidge forgot the John, and Thomas Woodrow Wilson, realizing that there were thousands of Thomas Wilsons in the country, chose to be known simply as Woodrow.

He came from that sturdy Saxon stock which left the north of Ireland and settled in great numbers in the English colonies in North America—the group that gave us so many of our presidents. Jefferson, Monroe, Jackson, Johnson, Grant, and McKinley are other descendants of these so-called Scotch-Irish.

He was born in Virginia, that mother of presidents, on the 28th of December in 1856. On both sides he came from earnest Christian people who were educated above the average of their times. His mother's father was a Scotch Presbyterian minister named Thomas Woodrow. His father,



WOODROW WILSON AT HIS DESK

likewise a Presbyterian minister, was pastor of a church at Staunton when the future president was born. The pastor and the pastor's daughter stocked the mind of the growing child with good literature and filled him with high religious ideals.

There were no public schools worthy of the name in the South in the years that immediately followed the surrender at Appomattox. A young Confederate veteran was his first teacher. At the age of thirteen, he was sent to attend an academy at Columbia, South Carolina. After four years here, he entered Davidson College, North Carolina where he spent a year as a freshman.

These were the troublous times of reconstruction, of negro domination in the legislative halls, the political exploitation of the liberated slaves by "white scalawags" and "carpet-baggers." The future professor of politics, the future historian of the United States, the future president of the nation, learned at an early date the lesson of corrupt control of the state's resources.

Young Wilson was eighteen years and eight months old when he crossed the Potomac River for the first time, on his way to his freshman year at Princeton (New Jersey) University. The southern colleges were not then recognized by the great universities of the North and he was forced to begin over again as a freshman. From Princeton, Wilson graduated in 1879. He must have been an all-round boy, for he learned enough about football to coach, later on, the team at Wesleyan University. He also sang in the Glee Club.

His main interest, however, was in historical and political questions. He soon became known as the best speaker in the college and was chosen as a member of the team which represented Princeton in the annual debates. It is easy to see how this interest led him into the study of law. He followed this at the law school of the University of Virginia and hung out his shingle in Atlanta in 1882.

A year later, however, his fondness for study sent him back to get more university training, this time at Johns Hopkins in Baltimore. After winning the degree of Ph.D., he was kept as a lecturer in history and political science. In 1888 he was elected a professor of these subjects at Wesleyan University, Middletown, Connecticut. Here he made a great success, and the fame of his lectures and his classroom went back to his own college. A vacancy occurred in 1890 in the Princeton faculty, and Woodrow Wilson was called back to be professor of law and politics.

For the next twelve years he remained as professor, spending his leisure time in writing books, which gave him a great deal of fame. His work on political science, "The State," became the best known text-book in all colleges. He published a big five-volume history of the American people, which marked him as one of our great writers.

In 1902, it was necessary to elect a new president of Princeton. Up to this time the presidency had always been held by a Presbyterian minister. The trustees, therefore, made a radical change when they offered the professor of law and politics the presidency. For the next eight years he held this position.

His life was not an especially happy one during this period, for he had some very strong ideas about changes that must be made in both the college life and in the course of study, changes which were not always agreed to by the trustees, by the faculty, or by the student-body. President Wilson fought

hard to tone down the snobbishness that he saw in the university life, and did a great deal to make Princeton more democratic.

In the fall of 1910, the Democratic party of New Jersey, which had fallen into disrepute with the people, was looking for a candidate who would win back popular support. The party leaders offered the nomination for governor to the president of Princeton. He accepted the offer and burned his bridges behind him by resigning the presidency of the University before election day.

He made a strong campaign and convinced the people that he was earnest, sincere, and progressive. He was elected by a large majority.

The politicians who had selected him as the figurehead had flattered themselves that they could control this university theorist and divide up the usual political spoils. To their amazement, they found that they had taken on not a figurehead, but a master.

Governor Wilson, when the politicians refused to carry out the promises made in their platform, appealed over their heads to the people. Senators and representatives began hearing from their "home folks." They decided that perhaps it would be best for them, after all, to vote as they had promised to do if elected. The govenor drove through bill after bill, which cleared up the state. From being the favorite home of corporations which preyed upon the people, it came to be an unhealthy spot for people of this class.

In 1912, after sixteen lean years, the Democratic politicians again saw a chance for the success of their party through the quarrel between the two wings of the Republicans, partly led respectively by President Taft and ex-President Roosevelt. It was evident that, with the Republican vote split in two, a Democrat would surely be elected president. The old-time political bosses favored the candidacy of James Beauchamp Clark, Speaker of the House of Representatives, a man who had been regular in all his voting and was a good, safe, party wheelhorse.

Another power had to be reckoned with, however. This was William Jennings Bryan, who had three times been a candidate for president and was now a delegate to the convention in Baltimore. The old crowd of politicians beat Bryan and his friends in the first day's battle by electing their temporary chairman.

Bryan then used Wilson's tactics. He appealed to the people through the press to let the delegates hear from the folks at home. He sent telegrams to the leading candidates for president —Wilson, Underwood, Harmon and Clark, asking them where they stood on the question of surrender to certain influences in the convention. The old-time politicians, like Clark and Harmon, tried to carry water on both shoulders and returned evasive answers. Wilson struck out straight from the shoulder and told Bryan that he was right. Bryan, who had been voting for Clark, now turned more and more toward Wilson, and, when the Tammany Democrats from New York swung over to Clark's support, he and his friends deserted Clark for the New Jersey Governor.

After a long, hard struggle, Wilson was nominated. He had worthy opponents in the race in Colonel Roosevelt and President Taft, but Wilson's splendid record in New Jersey carried him and he was elected by the most tremendous majority ever given a candidate in the electoral college, although his popular vote was a million less than the combined votes of his opponents.

He worked with the United States Congress exactly as he had with the Legislature of New Jersey. Objecting politicians were whipped into line. The school master secured performance. Wilson's first term saw a most remarkable fulfillment of platform promises. A great many progressive measures were enacted into law, the most important of them, no doubt, being the Federal Reserve Bank Act, designed to prevent any panics such as we had had in 1857, 1873, and 1893.

Then came the great European war and the position of the United States became very difficult. Germany sank a great British steamship, the Lusitania, and over a hundred American citizens lost their lives. President Wilson sent a stern note of warning to Germany, framed in such language that he hoped it would prevent a second offense. Ex-President Roosevelt and a number of people along the Atlantic coast said that we should declare war on Germany at once. Mr. Bryan, who was Secretary of State, resigned his office rather than sign the stern note that the President had written. He and his supporters felt that Wilson was going too far. The great mass of the people, especially in the Middle West and on the Pacific coast, had no desire to enter the war.

In the summer of 1916 came another political campaign. The President was nominated to succeed himself. The progressive wing of the Republican Party again nominated Colonel Roosevelt, but the latter, abandoning his followers, announced that he would support Justice Hughes, the nominee of the regular Republicans. The Democrats used as their campaign cry, "He kept us out of war."

This is the slogan that finally won the election, for Wilson was returned to office by a very close vote. The entire northeast and north central portion of the country had voted solidly for Hughes, with the exception of the states of Ohio and New Hampshire. Wilson carried the entire South and all the states west of the Missouri River, except Oregon.

Before his second term began, however, it was plain that Mr. Wilson could keep us out of war no longer. The story of this conflict has already been told in a preceding volume.

In the fall of 1918, after Germany and Austria had become convinced that their final defeat was a matter of months, if not of weeks, the Germans appealed to President Wilson for terms of peace. They felt that he would control the other nations because they relied so largely on American help for men, munitions and food. They figured, too, that Wilson would have less bitter feeling against them than the French or the British, and that, being unskilled in the tricks of European diplomacy, they could wheedle him into concessions which could not be gotten from the other nations.

With consummate skill, Wilson answered them. He got them to admit that they were asking for peace on terms which he had dictated in his public speeches. He then reminded them that in one of these speeches he had called for "the destruction of every arbitrary power that can secretly and of its single choice disturb the peace of the world." He went on to say that there could be no peace as long as Germany was controlled only by the war lords.

Wilson had an opportunity in his next note to tell the Germans what the world thought of their practice of firing at helpless people trying to save their lives in the lifeboats of ships which had been sunk by the submarines. He wound up the debate by telling the Germans that the world had learned, at its cost, what the word

of the Berlin Government was worth and that as long as the military group remained in control there could be no peace negotiations except those based on complete surrender.

When this message reached the German people, they rose up and overthrew their rulers. It is probably not saying too much to claim that the messages of Wilson to the German people, over the heads of their rulers, had a great deal to do with the establishment of the German Republic.

The men in the trenches had been promised that this was the last great war, "The war to end war." President Wilson saw clearly that only by binding agreements among the nations could such wars be avoided in the future. He therefore insisted that there be formed a League of Nations which should settle all disputes and agree together to punish any member who attacked another. This, he maintained, was simply putting into practice the police regulations of any civilized country.

It was a new thought to the European nations, accustomed as they were to secret diplomacy and to the intrigue of rival Foreign Offices. They were not ready to trust each other. Some said, "Let us first make peace with Germany. Then later on we can consider the formation of a League of Nations."

Wilson saw through this, however. He saw that after the treaty of peace had been signed there was no guarantee that any League of Nations could be formed. Therefore, he did something that no American President had ever done before him. He left this country for Europe, feeling that the affairs of the world were greater than those of the nation.

He took an important part in the Peace Conference. Through his single influence, he made the formation of the League of Nations a part of the peace treaty, so that the whole thing had to be accepted or rejected together. The French were dubious. In order to "buy" their support to the League, Wilson and Lloyd George, the English Prime Minister, agreed to a treaty by which the two English speaking nations bound themselves to come to France's rescue in case Germany, in future, might attack France in revenge.

President Wilson's reception in Europe was a remarkable ovation. He was greeted with the admiration and respect of both rulers and people in Great Britain, France and Italy. The peoples of the smaller nations of Europe, too, applauded his name. He appeared to them the universal Santa Claus who was going to give them everything that they wished for Christmas.

Soon, however, clouds came on the horizon. Forgetting the lessons of the late war, some of the nations insisted, in the peace treaty, on having lands which properly should not belong to them. President Wilson fought these selfish claims. He succeeded in defeating many of them. In other cases, however, his allies refused to decide with him and he was forced to compromise.

The treaty, once signed, had to be ratified by the Senate of the United States. Some of the senators felt very much toward Wilson as the New Jersey legislators had felt when he was governor. They began to propose "reservations" to the treaty. These reservations, said Wilson, would cut the heart out of it, and would put the United States in the attitude of wishing to get all the benefits of the treaty but unwilling to incur any of its responsibilities.

Wilson then tried, on a big scale, to duplicate with the United States what

he had done in New Jersey. He appealed over the heads of the senators to the people who had elected them. He started on a great speaking tour through the West, a tour similar to the one which later on killed Harding. Wherever he went, he made enthusiastic converts and the senators began hearing from the people "back home."

He had undertaken too much, however. He was suddenly stricken by an illness which left him partially paralyzed. The tremendous task was too much for one man to accomplish.

He said feelingly that he would gladly give his life for the League. It was necessary, however, for him to spend the rest of his term practically in retirement. Although able to take a considerable interest in events, he was constantly a sick man.

At last the "broken piece of machinery" failed to respond and on Sunday morning, February 3, 1924, Woodrow Wilson joined the legions who had given their lives for the nation.

Friend and foe, with one mind, joined in paying tribute to a great American who had passed on. He was an idealist with a passion for the principles on which the country was founded

Perhaps no better conclusion can be made than briefly to quote from his Flag Day address, delivered from the steps of the White House on June 14, 1917, a little more than two months after America entered the World War.

"We meet to celebrate Flag Day because this flag which we honor and under which we serve is the emblem of our unity, our power, our thought and purpose as a nation.

* * * * * * * * * *

"We are about to carry it into battle, to lift it where it will draw the fire of our enemies.

* * * * * * * * * *

"For us there is but one choice. We have made it. Woe be to the man or group of men that seeks to stand in our way in this day of high resolution when every principle we hold dearest is to be vindicated and made secure for the salvation of the nation. We are ready to plead at the bar of history, and our flag shall wear a new luster. Once more we shall make good with our lives and fortunes the great faith to which we were born, and a new glory shall shine in the face of our people."

CLARA BARTON — Born 1821 — Died 1912

Who gives himself with his alms feeds three,—
Himself, his hungering neighbor, and Me.
—Lowell's "Vision of Sir Launfal."

IN the year 1821 there came a Christmas present to Captain and Mrs. Stephen Barton, in their home at Oxford, Mass. This was none other than the baby daughter, Clara, whose arrival was ten years later than that of any of her four older brothers and sisters. Well might she be called a welcome Christmas gift.

The brothers and sisters were more teachers than anything else, so eager were they to introduce the little Clara to all the wonders of the great world. We find her entering school at the tender age of three with a knowledge of the spelling of three syllable words and an introduction to arithmetic.

Her big brother David began early

Clara Barton.

to teach her to ride and at five she was at home on the back of a horse. This training stood her in good stead later when she often spent most of the night in the saddle. She has told us that she felt "the only real fun is to do things," and when she had no outlet for her energies, she became very unhappy and self-conscious.

When Clara was eleven David suffered a serious injury that laid him up for two years. During all this time the young sister nursed him with untiring devotion. Finally he recovered and without this responsibility, Clara became restless and unhappy and a problem to her parents and to herself.

A very sensible gentleman was consulted and he advised that the girl of fifteen be given the responsibility of teaching. Accordingly, she "put down her skirts and put up her hair," and proceeded to become a successful teacher. For the next eighteen years she continued to teach, until she began to desire to go to school again herself, there being no woman's college open in those days she went to the Clinton Liberal Institute in New York.

Emerging from the Institute, she sought for a new field of activity and found it at Bordentown, N. J. There was then no public school in the town or in the state. It had been thought impossible to maintain a school there, but Miss Barton agreed to teach free for three months to demonstrate what she could do. The situation was indeed a challenge to her. In a month she had proved that she was a success and at the end of the first year she had increased her enrollment from six to six hundred and from a dilapidated old building had progressed to a fine new eight-room school house. She stayed at Bordentown until her voice broke down.

She went to Washington as a confidential secretary in the office of the Commissioner of Patents. This was against all precedents and the clerks rebelled against the entrance of a woman. In spite of all they did to make things unpleasant for her, Miss Barton succeeded in high degree. Even when political changes took her away, she was recalled through necessity for her services.

At Washington she was in the center of the Civil War activities and in the first year she was present when the trains came in filled with the wounded. She recognized the boys of the 6th Massachusetts Militia, many of them former pupils of hers, and a task was before her. She saw a chance to serve "her country and humanity" and shortly she was in the work of nursing, reading and writing letters and even allotting provisions sent from relatives and friends and simply consigned to "Clara Barton." She tells how as many as fifty letters a day came pouring in for her attention, and how warehouses began to overflow with supplies, food, jellies and bandages.

But Washington was not the place. She wanted "something to do that no one else would do; something that no one else had thought of doing." She began assisting at the wharves where the mud-caked soldiers came in from the fields. She conceived the idea of going down the river to the battlefields.

Being awarded a pass she boarded a transport and began what proved to be four years of arduous service on the battlefields. She was subject to no one and had authority over no one. It was not long before the officers began to turn to her for help and to give her every possible assistance.

At Antietam the surgeons were overwhelmed. Food ran out and the supply of lights was exhausted. Clara Barton came up with her own supplies and a stock of candles and lanterns and the

CLARA BARTON'S BIRTH PLACE, OXFORD, MASS.

CLARA BARTON'S SUMMER HOME, OXFORD, MASS.

work of operating went steadily on into the night relieving hundreds of suffering soldiers.

Her clothing was often pierced with bullets, her face was repeatedly blackened with powder smoke, but she seemed to lead a charmed life. Though she broke down a number of times, she was quickly back at her self-appointed task, and she refused to take any comforts that the soldiers did not have.

At the risk of being thought disloyal, she nursed the stricken foe as well as friend, and in this displayed her pure humanity.

She kept hospital and burial lists and after the war rendered a great service in looking after these records. This she did at her own personal expense in Washington, although later Congress reimbursed her.

In 1869 she went to Europe for a rest. While in Geneva she was visited by a gentleman who "represented the International Committee of the Red Cross." Upon inquiry she learned that in 1863 there had been founded a society to have the governments exempt from capture those caring for the wounded of the battlefields and to secure cooperation of the medical staffs of the different armies. Miss Barton approved of the general plan and agreed to work for its adoption in America.

The Franco-Prussian War was then in progress and in 1870 Miss Barton rendered service in Paris and at Strasburg. She was impressed with the efficiency with which the wounded were cared for in contrast with the difficulties that she had encountered in the United States during the Civil War. She said "If I live to return to my country, I will make my people understand the Red Cross and that treaty."

Illness interfered with her plans and it was not until 1877 that she was able to get back to Washington where she hammered away for five years against prejudice and misunderstanding, fear of "entangling alliances" and indifference, until in 1882 the United States signed up as a member of the Red Cross. Clara Barton was made the first president.

Here at last was the organization but there was no war. Miss Barton created new duties for the American Red Cross. She amended the Geneva treaty to provide for aid in times of peace as well as war. She saw that almost every day catastrophes were occurring, that the ravages of fire, water and cyclone were rendering necessary the relief that the Red Cross could extend. While living at Dansville, N. Y. she saw the townspeople form the first local chapter and shortly after its formation saw the work that there was to do. A great forest fire broke out in Michigan and the Red Cross immediately went to the rescue. Next came a cyclone in Louisiana and then the terrific floods of the Ohio. At the latter situation Clara Barton personally directed the relief work.

The story of our heroine from now on is parallel with that of the Red Cross. There was the Texas famine, the Johnstown flood, the Charlestown earthquake, the Russian famine, and finally the Spanish-American War, when Miss Barton was given full charge and when the hosts of the Red Cross did the finest work in their history.

Her retirement in 1904 brought her active participation to a close, but her sympathies were always with her "child" until at the age of over ninety years, she passed on in 1912.

Today the Red Cross is one of our most firmly established institutions. Millions belong and wear the little badge as a mark of honor. Its work goes steadily on.

GEORGE DEWEY — Born 1837 — Died 1917

But better the golden evening when the ships round heads for home,
And the long gray miles slip swiftly past in a swirl of seething foam,
And the people wait at the haven's gate to greet the men who win!
Thank God for peace! thank God for peace, when the great gray ships come in!
—CARRYL'S "When the Great Gray Ships Come In."

IN a quiet, shady street of Montpelier, Vermont, a doctor's gig stopped to pick up a bright, barefoot boy, and carry him home. The physician was Dr. Dewey, a well-known and highly respected citizen of a beautiful New England town. The boy was his little son George, who liked to go barefoot, and whom, when grown to manhood, the country knew as Admiral Dewey, the "Hero of Manila."

The boy's early education was obtained in the grammar school of Montpelier and at Norwich University. Then, against his father's wishes, young George entered the Naval Academy at Annapolis. At this time he was a strong athletic boy of seventeen. At graduation from Annapolis, Dewey stood fifth in his class.

When Farragut made his famous run past the forts that guarded New Orleans, the *Mississippi* was the third ship in line, and the first lieutenant of the *Mississippi* was George Dewey. Through all the fearful fire of that deadly night, he stood on the bridge, exposed to shot and shell. Farragut had ordered that there should be no lights on deck, so the forms of the brave men at their posts could not be seen except by the light of the gun fire. "Every time the dark came back," said one of the *Mississippi's* officers, afterward, "I felt sure that we should never see Dewey again. His hat was blown off, his eyes were aflame, but he gave his orders with the air of a man in thorough command of himself."

After the capture of New Orleans, Farragut proceeded up the river to aid the army in securing Port Hudson and Vicksburg, and within easy range of one of the Confederate forts the *Mississippi* went aground. It was impossible to float her; to leave her was to betray her into the hands of the enemy; there was therefore nothing left but to set her on fire. Lieutenant Dewey was the last to leave the burning vessel. At the risk of his life he went below after the *Mississippi* had been fired, to make sure that the preparations were such that she would burn to the water's edge.

When war between Spain and Cuba broke out in 1895 George Dewey was in the harbor of Hongkong in command of our Asiatic squadron. He had risen step by step until now he was commodore.

THE DEWEY TRIUMPHAL ARCH

Erected at Broadway and Fifth Ave., New York, to commemorate the deeds of the hero of Manila Bay.

On the night of February 15, 1898 one of our battle ships, the *Maine*, rode at anchor in the harbor of Havana. Suddenly a terrific explosion was heard. The *Maine* had been blown up

by a torpedo placed beneath her by unknown hands. The noble ship shivered and settled in her watery grave, and two hundred and sixty-six brave sailors perished.

This tragedy aroused afresh the growing feeling against Spain, for many Americans believed that the deed had been done by Spaniards. The United States now renewed her efforts to compel Spain to cease her cruel treatment of the Cubans, but she steadily refused. In April, 1898, Congress decided to take up arms in defense of Cuba.

A declaration of war followed, and it was not long before the cable carried this message to Commodore Dewey at Hongkong: "Proceed at once to the Philippine Islands. Commence operations, particularly against Spanish fleet. Capture or destroy the vessels."

Seven thousand miles stretched between Dewey and the nearest home port, San Francisco; but Congress knew that this man, who was "like Farragut," could be trusted to do his full duty and to shirk no responsibility. Forty-eight hours after he received the dispatch Dewey's fleet of six war vessels was steaming toward Manila Bay in quest of the Spanish squadron. It was feared that this squadron would at once set out to attack American cities on the Pacific coast.

George Dewey was now in his sixty-second year. His sound judgment, coolness, and bravery had increased with the passing of time. When darkness settled over the water on the last night of April, his fleet was at the entrance to Manila Bay. Did a death trap lie before him? Most certainly the harbor was filled with torpedoes. The memory of the awful fate of the *Maine* came clearly to the minds of the brave sailors. Silently, with Dewey's flagship, the *Olympia*, in the lead, the American squadron entered the waters of the bay. Two torpedoes exploded just in front of the *Olympia*, but she held boldly on her course. Not far ahead lay the Spanish fleet of ten war vessels and two torpedo boats, while on each shore the batteries stood grim and threatening.

Slowly, steadily, the *Olympia* kept on her way, until at last Dewey turned to his captain and said quietly, "If you are ready, Gridley, you may fire." For two hours the air was thick with shot and shell. By the end of that time Dewey found himself so nearly the victor, that he decided to withdraw and allow his tired sailors to rest and have breakfast.

A few hours afterward he renewed the fight. The Spanish gunners were brave, but they were no match in marksmanship for the Americans, and before one o'clock the last Spanish flag had been hauled down. The entire fleet was destroyed, and more than one thousand Spaniards were killed or wounded. Not one of the American vessels was seriously injured, and not one man had been killed.

President McKinley immediately appointed Dewey rear admiral, and Congress presented him with a sword. All of his men received medals. But he was in the enemy's country, thousands of miles from home, and with communication cut off. His ammunition was nearly exhausted, and he was hourly expecting the arrival of a fresh Spanish fleet. One day a little Japanese cruiser sailed into Manila Bay and signalled, "Cervera's fleet destroyed off Santiago; Camara's fleet recalled from Suez!"

Upon his return to New York he was given an ovation and the beautiful arch shown in our picture was built in his honor. At his death he was the ranking naval officer of the world by seniority.

ALEXANDER GRAHAM BELL—Born 1847—Died 1922

Attempt the end and never stand to doubt;
Nothing's so hard but search will find it out.
—HERRICK'S "Hesperides Seeke and Finde."

THE United States had been an independent nation for a hundred years. It was the year of the great centennial, 1876. All Philadelphia was interested in the great exposition which the city was holding to celebrate the hundredth anniversary of the signing of the Declaration of Independence.

In an obscure corner of one of the buildings there stood a curious looking instrument with some metal trimmings and wires attached to it. Few of the visitors paid any attention to it. One day there came that way one of the most enlightened monarchs that the world has ever known. It was Dom Pedro, Emperor of Brazil. Suddenly he recognized an old acquaintance, Professor Alexander Graham Bell, son of the man who had invented a new method of teaching deaf-mutes to talk and himself the conductor of a wonderful school for this purpose. The Emperor had visited the school in Boston and had marveled at the progress in speech made by these unfortunate deaf-mutes.

After a few moments of social chat, Professor Bell said to the Emperor, "Your Majesty, I have a new invention here that I would like to demonstrate to you. Come with me, if you please. Apply this receiver to your ear."

"My God! It talks!" gasped the monarch, dropping the receiver. For the next hour, an excited ruler, himself well educated in science, quizzed the inventor about every detail. Other scientists gathered to note what it was that had so interested the Emperor. The fame of the telephone had begun.

Alexander Melville Bell was a great man. Had his fame not been overshadowed by that of his more noted son, the name of Bell would have been remembered in connection with teaching the deaf and dumb to speak.

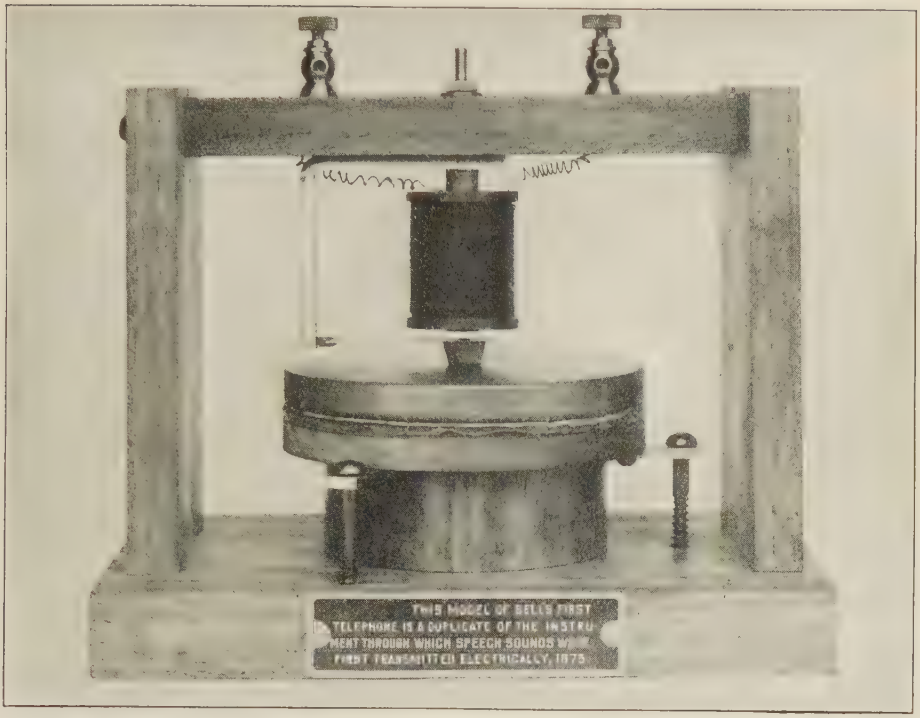
From his earliest boyhood, young Bell had been associated with the science of sound production. Following in his father's footsteps, he won fame for his remarkable success in the use of his father's invention. He always had the idea, however, that somehow, by means of an electric current, sound could be carried over a wire.

From Joseph Henry, a well-known American scientist, much older than himself, the young teacher received encouragement. "Keep at it, Bell," said the old man. "You have the germ of a great invention." "But I don't know enough about electricity," replied Bell. "Get that knowledge, then," replied Henry, and the young man did. For years and years he worked.

"The heights by great men reached and kept
Were not attained by sudden flight,
But they, while their companions slept,
Were toiling upwards through the night."

He called to his aid a young and skilled machinist named Thomas Watson. One evening Bell said to his friend, "If I could make a current of electricity vary in density as the air varies during the production of a sound, I could send speech over a wire." But it was one thing to plan an invention and another to make it

ALEXANDER GRAHAM BELL



BELL'S FIRST TELEPHONE

work. For months the two enthusiasts labored.

One day in June, 1875, they were working in rooms several yards apart with a wire connecting them. Bell came rushing in to Watson and demanded to know what the latter had done to make the instrument in Bell's room give out a certain sound. They knew at last that they were on the right track, but it was early in 1876 before Watson heard the first sentence ever carried over the electric wire in the form of audible speech. It was simply this: "Mr. Watson, please come here. I want you."

Then came the great exposition and the inventor's recognition, but, in spite of the excitement created by the announcement of what had been done, people were very slow to see the business possibilities of the telephone. However, in the eighties, it began to be used, and once its use was started, like a rolling snowball the need for it grew and grew.

Many an inventor has seen his patents snatched away from him by greedy promoters and has never profited from all his hard work, but Bell proved a good business man as well as an inventive genius. At his death in 1922, in spite of the fact that he had given away a great deal of money, he was still a wealthy man.

Startling as was his thought that speech could be carried over a wire, it is astonishing to know that a Chicago scientist, Elisha Gray by name, appeared at the United States Patent Office seeking for a patent just two hours after Bell had applied for a patent for precisely the same invention. Neither he nor Bell was aware that the other was working on the problem. They had reached it at practically the same time by independent thought.

FRANCES WILLARD — Born 1839 — Died 1898

She knew the power of banded ill,
But felt that love was stronger still,
And organized for doing good
The world's united womanhood.
—Whittier's personal tribute to Miss Willard.

IN Statuary Hall in the Capitol at Washington there is a place where each state may honor two of its great citizens. There is one statue of a woman and it is of Frances Willard, placed there by the state of Illinois. In presenting the memorial, the speaker said that his state did so "not only as a tribute to her whom it represents,—one of the foremost women of America,—but as a tribute to woman and her mighty influence upon our national life; to woman in the home; to woman wherever she is toiling for the good of humanity; to woman everywhere who has ever stood 'For God, for home, for native land.' "

The spirit of the pioneer, the adventurer into new places, was in Frances Willard. Josiah Willard and his family left New York when Frances was a small child and sought out Oberlin College and opportunity there. The mother and father were both students and five happy years were spent in this Ohio college town, until the physician advised Mr. Willard to get out into the open and away from books. The family made the long journey to Wisconsin where the charm of "Forest Home," as the site became known, held them and bade them build their dwelling there in the heart of Nature.

The new life in the west was not an easy one. There was much to do, but all found real zest in the new home and in making the fields yield up their treasure in the form of crops. Twelve full years were spent here and Frank, as she was called, grew up a real pioneer girl, with her beloved sister Mary her constant companion. Frank was always the leader. She was the general in brave Indian fights, she was the

The Statue of Frances Willard bears the following inscription:

It is women who have given the costliest hostages to fortune. Out into the battle of life they have sent their best beloved, with fearful odds against them. By the dangers they have dared; by the hours of patient waiting over beds where helpless children lay; by the incense of ten thousand prayers wafted from their gentle lips to Heaven, I charge you to give them power to protect along life's treacherous highway those whom they have so loved.

—FRANCES WILLARD

FRANCES WILLARD

captain of their good ship *Enterprise*, she was the director of a model city government and the editor of the newspaper. All these achievements in the realm of her fertile mind laid the foundations for her work in the great world. "If we do live inland, we don't have to *think inland*, Mary," she would say. And the children would go sailing away on the hen-coop to the Sea of Fancy.

When her brother Oliver would not allow her to ride a horse, she declared she just had to ride something and her father laughed when he saw Frank riding a long-horned cow. "You have fairly earned a better mount," he said, and the horse became her steed. She wrote in her journal that night, "Rode a horse through the corn—the acme of my hopes realized."

Schooling was not easy to obtain in the wilderness, and it was with great joy that Frank hailed the opportunity to learn more than the log-cabin school afforded. A Mr. Hodge from Yale opened a school and as Frank wrote, she wanted "to know everything—*everything*. It is only *knowing* that can make one free."

Finally she went to Northwestern Female College at Evanston, Illinois, where she became editor of the paper and leader in the literary societies. Leaving college she taught, beginning in the public schools and finally coming to be dean of her alma mater. She organized something like a senate and a house of representatives of the young women of the college and placed the government in their own hands. The early training at "Forest Home" was reaping its harvest.

Events were taking place in those days that were to enlarge the work of Frances Willard far beyond the academic halls. The Temperance Crusade was starting in Ohio and its effects were striking Chicago. She heard about it and it seized upon her as the *woman problem*, but she conceived the idea of working for it just where she was.

But she was soon free from her college work, through a disagreement with the president of Northwestern about administration, and she went to the task of the new crusade. After study in the east she returned to Chicago to become president of the local Woman's Christian Temperance Union. "Instead of peace," she said, "I was to participate in war; instead of the sweetness of home, I was to become a wanderer on the face of the earth." But she felt that a great promotion had come to her and her ardor was intense in her new field.

From now on her story is that of the W. C. T. U. She travelled all over the United States, 30,000 miles in one year, and for twelve years averaged a meeting a day. What did it all mean? She was educating the people of the country. She was organizing the power of women. In this connection we must not forget that Frances Willard was among the first to urge woman suffrage and when it was most unpopular. Soon she had an outspoken suffrage plank in the National Union. With the watchwords, "Prohibition, Woman's Liberation and Labor's Uplift," the Union under Miss Willard's

REST COTTAGE

leadership soon counted over a million members.

Frances Willard's was no cramped mind. She conceived of a wider organization to fight all the evils that women are interested in and in 1883, in Detroit, there came into being the World's Woman's Christian Temperance Union. Miss Willard was elected president, and at her death in 1898 the world union had been established in no less than fifty countries.

Her mother died in 1892 and after that time Miss Willard declined in health and strength. She had for many years been accustomed to coming back to "Rest Cottage" in Evanston to receive the kindly ministrations of her mother as simply as in the olden days at "Forest Home." As long as her health permitted she wrote and presided at meetings. She once declared the mission of the ideal woman to be "to make the whole world homelike." She went far in helping the world toward that goal.

GREAT AMERICANS OF TODAY

All are needed by each one—
Nothing is fair or good alone.
—EMERSON'S "Each and All."

THE preceding pages have chronicled the lives of some of the great Americans no longer living, but our record would be most incomplete if it were to stop with no mention of those men and women who are happily yet living when this is written, but who have already won a permanent place in our esteem and affections.

As the record of those who have passed on is of but a few, so, in even greater degree, must the naming of those of today be limited to a very few. We trust that the history of the future may be more and more that of the progress of peace, and especially we find in the following list those who have labored to further human progress in the lines of science and of social endeavor.

THOMAS ALVA EDISON

If the inventions of Thomas A. Edison were all removed from the world it would probably set civilization back many years. Many American inventors have made themselves famous without affecting to any great extent the daily life of the people, but on every hand we are reminded of the inventive genius of Edison.

Seventy years ago if people wished a better light than that of the tallow candle, they used a smoky, ill-smelling lamp that was filled with whale oil. It was thought that this was the only light that would be possible to replace the candle. An old gentleman, who was still living in 1900, remembered that in his youth, after a particularly poor season of whaling, it had been predicted at a solemn meeting held in New Bedford that within a few years only the very rich would be able to afford a light in their homes after sundown.

When kerosene lamps came into use, people thought this new form of lighting quite perfect. Everybody in Pennsylvania was eager to discover an oil well, for there, in 1859, an artesian well had been driven nearly seventy feet deep and petroleum procured, from which the kerosene was made. Instead of burning whale oil at fifty cents a gallon, people began to use odorless kerosene at a cost of twenty cents a gallon.

Next came illuminating gas. English inventors showed how gas could be made from coal and carried in pipes to houses and factories. This was a very great improvement over tallow candles or even kerosene.

But the most important discovery was the use of electricity. Franklin, with his kite, had brought this great force down from the clouds, and Morse and others had made it serve as a means of communication between persons separated by thousands of miles. It remained for Thomas A. Edison to make it do our lighting and propel our street cars. Many experiments had been made along these lines, but it was not until Mr. Edison's inventions came into use that electricity became the great power for civilization it now is. In 1879 he invented the incandescent light, and five years later, at Menlo Park, New Jersey, set in operation an electric railway two miles long, the first in America.

Thos A Edison.

Thomas A. Edison was born at Milan, Ohio. He went to school only about three months, and there being rated as a dunce, his mother, a former high school teacher, educated him herself. When he was twelve years old he became a newsboy on the Grand Trunk Railway. He was ambitious, eager to learn and to succeed, and every moment of leisure he devoted to study. He was particularly interested in chemistry and used to experiment on the train. One day his experiments led to an accident, and the young experimenter and his laboratory were put off the car.

As young Edison had no idea of spending his life selling books and magazines, he learned printing, obtained a press, and set it up in the baggage car. He edited, printed, and sold a paper of his own, *The Grand Trunk Weekly Herald.*

One day he saved the life of a child of one of the station masters. The little boy was playing on the track, unmindful of a train bearing swiftly down upon him. Edison saw the danger, sprang forward, and snatched him from the path of the engine just in time. The grateful father was only too glad to teach the youth telegraphy, and Edison soon afterward entered upon a five years' experience as a telegraph operator.

But his inventive genius could not long be content with sending and receiving telegraph messages. He studied electricity and began a series of inventions that have made him known throughout the world. He worked in various cities, everywhere studying and experimenting.

When twenty-two years old, Edison settled in New York, and six years later opened his workshop at Menlo Park. At the great Centennial Exposition held in Philadelphia in 1876, the telegraph and the telephone were the most wonderful discoveries for the use of electricity. But by 1893, when the Columbian Exposition was held at Chicago to celebrate the discovery of America, electric lights and electric street cars had come into common use. What would Columbus and his sailors have thought, could they have seen the famous "White City" on the shore of Lake Michigan, with its marvelous display of electric light?

Mr. Edison is (1929) still living, and still experimenting in his laboratory at West Orange, New Jersey. Millions of his wonderful incandescent lights are in use. In a glass bulb, now so familiar to every one, the electricity passes through a filament, which is thus heated to a white heat and furnishes a brilliant light. How simple it all seems when, by merely pressing a button, the room is instantly a blaze of light! We forget the years of patient toil that were necessary to bring this invention to perfection. Mr. Edison sent men all over the world to find a vegetable fiber that he needed for his filament. From the thousands of specimens brought to him, only three or four would serve his purpose.

A system of duplex telegraphy was invented by Mr. Edison, whereby he made one wire do the work of two. Gradually he has perfected this until in the quadruplex one wire now does the work of four. He has also improved the telephone, invented the phonograph and the motion picture, and today he ranks among the greatest inventors of all time. Not long ago some one asked Mr. Edison to name his more important inventions. "Well," he replied, "first and foremost was the electric lighting system; then the mimeograph, electric pen, carbon telephone, incandescent lamp, quadruple telegraph, automatic telegraph, phonograph, and the motion picture, and—I don't know—a lot of other things."

HERBERT CLARK HOOVER

Our next great American is also a Californian by adoption. Herbert C. Hoover, born in Iowa in 1874, was graduated from Stanford University, on the Pacific coast in 1895.

As a mining engineer, he came to know the whole world, more or less. His profession had taken him into Canada, Australia, Russia, China, South Africa and India. Although little known to Americans, his name was familiar to the great mining experts of the world.

In 1914, when hundreds and thousands of Americans were caught abroad and, owing to the outbreak of the great war, were unable to get money on their letters of credit, Mr. Hoover did great work in relieving their distress. His clear head and sound business judgment was backed up by an honest purpose and a determination which never wavered until his purpose was carried out.

Soon there came news from Belgium, through our great minister, Brand Whitlock, and from our London representative, Walter Hines Page, that Belgian civilians were being starved because the Germans in possession of their country allowed no food to come through to them, but appropriated it all for the use of the German army.

A committee on Belgian Relief was organized and Mr. Hoover was placed in charge of it. His was a most difficult task. With the Germans in possession of Belgium, and with absolutely no trading allowed between this country and Great Britain, Mr. Hoover had to see to it that ships loaded with grain left British ports, passed through the cordon of the Germans, and arrived safely at their destination. He then had to see to it that the food generously donated by Americans reached the Belgians for whom it was intended, and not the German armies.

He had to deal, first, with British authorities who were not "sold" on the scheme by any manner of means. They had seen so many German tricks that they were suspicious of the whole business. He had to deal with the Prussian military class, the most autocratic and arrogant group in the world.

Tactfully, firmly, persistently, Mr. Hoover pressed his case with both. His honesty of purpose, the fact that he wished nothing for himself, appealed even to the officials who were calloused with war's brutality.

Side by side with Mr. Hoover worked Brand Whitlock, the American minister who had first called attention to Belgium's needs. He, too, dealt with the Germans, bluntly, directly, in an above board American fashion. Aided by the Spanish minister, the Marquis de Villalobar y O'Neill, a man of strong personality and with a manner not to be denied, he forced even the German military commander to acknowledge the rights of the starving people of Belgium.

The two great national heroes of Belgium during the war were their stalwart king, who went into the trenches with his men and endured all their hardships, and the noble Cardinal Mercier, who defied the threats of death and imprisonment in vigorously protesting against the brutal acts of the Germans. It is a great tribute to Brand Whitlock that his name was joined with the other two in the daily prayer that every Belgian patriot offered for the King, the Cardinal, and the Minister.

The Belgian people soon learned to join with Mr. Whitlock's name that of Herbert Hoover. During the four long years of nightmare, it was the Amer-

HERBERT CLARK HOOVER

icans, led by Whitlock and Hoover, who kept thousands and thousands of Belgians alive.

When America entered the great war, she took advantage of the lessons which other nations had learned by sorrowful experience. She conscripted her men for military service from the very outset. She appointed a fuel administrator and a food administrator. For the latter position only one name was proposed, that of the mining engineer who had so conspicuously shown his ability in Belgium.

Under his vigorous direction, the Americans, for the first time, learned lessons of saving in regard to their food. It had been said, with truth, that we were the most wasteful nation on the face of the globe. Our food was plentiful and we never thought of saving it. It has been claimed, and no doubt with justice, that all of Italy could live on what New York City alone throws away.

Americans also learned to deny themselves certain luxuries that they had always been accustomed to. We had wheatless days, baconless breakfasts, sugarless days, etc. We learned to substitute corn syrup for cane sugar, corn bread for wheat flour.

A tremendous campaign of advertising followed. "Food will win the war. Don't waste it," said one poster. Another, with the picture of the garbage can, said, "Put it here and the Kaiser will get it." The nation learned for the first time the doctrine of the clean plate—at the close of the meal.

So ably did Herbert Hoover do his work that in spite of the fact that he had made millions of his countrymen deny themselves luxuries for a year and a half, there is no doubt but that he was the most popular man who had had anything to do with the great administrative work of the great war. President Harding showed good judgment and greatly pleased the nation by appointing him Secretary of Commerce. He continued in the same position under the Coolidge administration.

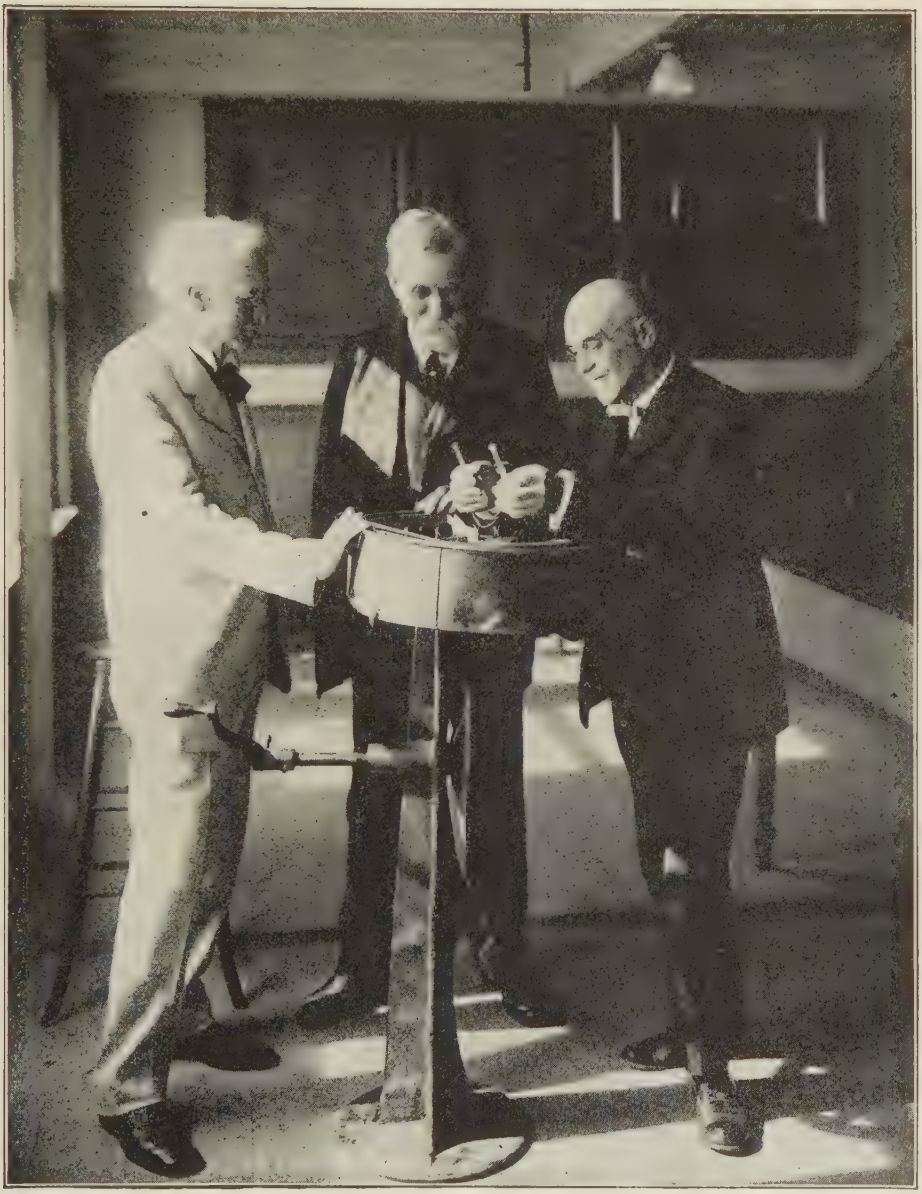
In 1928 Secretary Hoover was nominated for President; and in November he was elected to occupy the highest office within the gift of the nation.

STEPHEN MOULTON BABCOCK

In the early days of dairying in America, butter and cheese were made on the individual farms, but in 1851, in Oneida County, New York, the first associated factory was started. A number of farmers brought their milk together to have it made into cheese. Difficulties, however, soon arose. Each man was paid for the milk that he brought according to the weight or volume, regardless of the amount of butter-fat which it contained. The opportunities for fraud were great, for it was hard to detect watering of the milk or skimming off the cream.

The whole system of co-operative butter making and of cheese factories was in danger of being wrecked when there appeared the famous Babcock test for butter-fat. This was in July, 1890. Its inventor was Dr. Stephen Moulton Babcock. Born at Bridgewater, New York, in October, 1843, he was graduated from Tufts College in the class of '66. He had at first intended to be an engineer, and took post graduate work at Cornell with this in mind, but later on he was fascinated by chemistry and went abroad to study at Göttingen.

At the age of thirty-eight, he was appointed State Chemist for New York and was located at the State Agricultural Experiment Station. Six years later Wisconsin called him to take charge of a similar station at Madison.



Professor Babcock (right) explaining the Babcock Tester to President Chamberlain (center) and Dean Henry. When Professor Babcock discovered the Tester, President Chamberlain was head of the University of Wisconsin and Dean Henry was in charge of the State Experiment Station.

A wise governor of the state, W. D. Hoard, had urged upon the Wisconsin farmers the splendid opportunity that they had to make their state the leader in the Union in the production of dairy products. The Wisconsin State Dairymen's Association had become a strong organization by the time Dr. Babcock first came to the state. Like similar associations elsewhere, they were searching earnestly for some method of determining the fat content of the milk.

Six different men, one after another, announced that the problem had been solved, but every one of their tests fell down in practice. Dr. Babcock, among others, announced that he had solved the problem, but his first test was upset by a Jersey cow, named Sylvia, who obstinately refused to conform to the required formula. So the first Babcock test, like its predecessors, went to the scrap heap.

Dr. Babcock, however, was not satisfied. He added concentrated sulphuric acid with ether to his chemical solution and realized that at last the problem was solved. Simply, quickly, accurately, the butter-fat could be determined. The true value of the milk was known and the day was saved for the co-operative factories.

Now comes the main point of our story. Here was a process which thousands of chemists had been working for years to discover. Its inventor had it within his power to put himself into the class of Alexander Graham Bell and Samuel F. B. Morse, men who had become millionaires, and rightly so, because of the great service that they had rendered to the world. But Stephen Moulton Babcock had a still higher conception of service. He resolutely refused to patent his invention. Said he, "I am working for the state and for the nation. This is part of the duty that I owe its citizens. As far as I am concerned, this process shall never be patented. I give it freely to the farmers of America."

It is a sad commentary on our civilization that, while every school boy can tell you who John D. Rockefeller and Henry Ford are, not one in a thousand has ever heard of Stephen M. Babcock. In the hope that others may arise to give their fellowmen similar service, this story is told to American youth.

For, although the great bulk of our people know little or nothing of Dr. Babcock, the people worth while have accorded him the highest honors. From all over the world there have come testimonials of appreciation of his work. He owns a large gold medal, the grateful gift of the farmers of Wisconsin, as voted by the State Legislature. The governments of New Zealand, New South Wales and Australia have sent him wonderful presents. There hangs in his home a famous painting of the Scottish Highlands, a token of admiration from the canny dairymen of those northern hills. The Paris Exposition of 1900 awarded him, unsolicited, le grand Prix d'Honneur. A similar Grand Prize was awarded him at the St. Louis Exposition of 1904. At various times the judges who award the Nobel Prize have tried to include him in the list of its recipients. Only the technical difficulty arising from the fact that his invention was made before the death of Dr. Nobel has prevented his receiving this prize, so richly deserved.

Thousands of tributes have come unsolicited to the man who cast aside the opportunity to be one of the world's wealthiest men and gave his all to humanity. One of his colleagues, at a banquet given for him some years ago, made this statement: "Dr. Babcock has compelled the cow to be honest. Can the doctor do as much for

us, the human race?" One Iowa farmer wrote, "I quoted scripture to my patrons for years and it did no good. But the Babcock test brought them to terms in a week." The pastor of one of the leading churches in Madison, in one of his sermons recently said, "There is one man in this city whom I envy very much. Compare the honor and love of a grateful state for this man with the case of the man who has merely lived to build up riches for himself—the former is rich and the latter poor indeed."

Today (1928) Dr. Babcock is over eighty years of age. The new generation of students at Madison are not acquainted with him intimately. A man of science, he still spends much time in scientific research and with the enthusiasm of a young man he still hopes to give important discoveries to the world. Occasionally one can get an opportunity to talk with him. His theme, however, is seldom his own work. His hobbies are few, but he enjoys those few immensely. The doctor takes great delight in driving about in his car, and there are few athletic contests of the University at which he is not present. His gray hair may be seen bobbing up and down at football contests, the most excited spectator of all. Dr. Babcock is a true athletic "fan." The greatest hero of all time to him was the famous Christy Mathewson. Year after year he watches the standing of the teams in the leagues and derives keen enjoyment from the world series.

That he may live many years yet to enjoy the love and respect of a grateful nation is the fervent hope and prayer of his colleagues, of the students in Wisconsin, and of all those who know him or his work.

Much has been said recently about the great women of today and an inquiry by a Chilean woman has led the National League of Women Voters to put the question up to the country. A few that have been prominently mentioned on practically every list are given herewith.

CARRIE CHAPMAN CATT

The name of this distinguished woman heads almost every list. She was born in Wisconsin and educated in Iowa. She studied law and was superintendent of schools, before deciding to devote all her energies and talents to the woman suffrage movement.

CARRIE CHAPMAN CATT

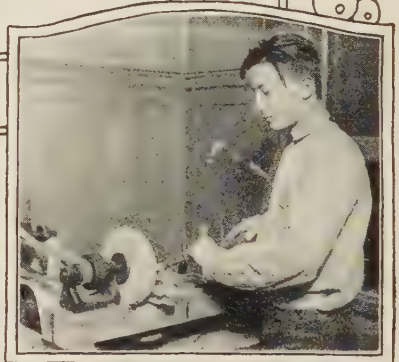
She has lectured in almost every state in this country and in practically every country in Europe. She has served as president of national and international woman suffrage organizations, and is today very actively at work on the problems that constitute her life-work.

JANE ADDAMS

A writer has said that the sympathy and understanding of Jane Addams is greater than that of any other living human being. She has in abundant measure, in the words of Goethe, "entered into the life of the race."

This woman who belongs to Chicago and to the world was born in a small town, Cedarville, Ill., and was fortunate in having a splendid education with the further prospect of studying later for the medical profession. A spinal difficulty rendered it impossible

JANE ADDAMS



Work Shop at Hull House

Hull House Boys Club Band

Boys in Gymnasium at Hull House

for her to become a physician, and she went for two years travel in Europe.

All the while she was seeking for what she called the "thing" in life, that would lead to achievement and settle a discontent that lay upon her. While going about in London a sight fixed itself on her mind and was never rubbed out. It was the poverty of the East Side. "The final impression was not of ragged, tawdry clothing nor of pinched and sallow faces, but of myriads of hands, empty, pathetic, nerveless and work-worn, showing white in the uncertain light of the streets and clutching forward for food which was already unfit to eat."

The impressions of the squalor of these London scenes set her to thinking of ways to "mitigate the sufferings of the world" in some way. She visited Toynbee Hall in London and at last felt she had finished with "preparation for life" and was ready really to live.

With her friend Miss Starr she came to Chicago and secured a substantial house in the industrial section. She had it repaired and named it Hull House after its original owner. Thus was born that "social settlement" that is now known and honored all around the world by people of every tongue. Indeed there are no less than thirty-six nations living near Hull House in the lists of immigrants from those lands.

Many fellow workers and residents have, through the years, given of their lives to the great enterprise. A day nursery and a kindergarten were started and the foreign women were won. From an attitude of aloofness there has come a spirit of co-operation and to watch a series of meetings at Hull House is verily to see the "melting pot" at work.

Co-operation with the courts, with the library, with every implement of improvement has been the order of the day. When an independent institution has been able to take over certain activities, Hull House has always been willing.

Recreation has been provided and some really remarkable work in competitive athletics has come from Hull House. Music has always been fostered, dancing has been provided and the camps up on the shore of Lake Michigan testify to the success of this side of the work.

A perusal of the Hull House Year Book shows almost countless activities from the work of the immigrant boy in the studio to the week-end parties at the Bowen Country Club, donated to Hull House Association in 1912. Miss Addams is the honored guest at every affair that she is able to attend. Her genius has been shown in the scores of invitations to speak in this country and abroad. Many other settlements have taken their inspiration from that of Miss Addams, and her name will live through her wonderful philanthropic work for all time.

M. CAREY THOMAS

As we look at the record it is easy to see why, in the field of education, that great feminist, M. Carey Thomas, President Emeritus of Bryn Mawr, is placed among our great women of the present day. At the ceremonies attendant upon her retirement from the active presidency in 1922 there spoke men and women ably representative of the learning of America, all with heartfelt tributes to the greatness of Miss Thomas.

Born in Baltimore in 1857 she was, from childhood, a vigorous example of energetic courage and indomitable determination. Although for seven years of her childhood she was on her back as a result of a serious burn, she used the time well in study that was steady and even voracious. She would learn whole books by heart if she liked them.

Recovering, she plunged as thoroughly into physical activities and took up riding, skating and swimming while pursuing her studies, especially Greek. It was most unusual in those early days for a girl to study Greek, but we find this student going up to

M. CAREY THOMAS

Cornell to finish the course there in two years, continuing her Greek at Baltimore under a professor from Johns Hopkins, and laying ambitious plans for graduate study abroad.

In spite of the discouragement of her family and her friends she went to Leipzig where she studied for three full years only to find the degree denied her on account of her sex. She was refused at Göttingen for the same reason and turned to the University at Zürich, which consented to admit her to examination. She appeared in full evening dress, with a long train, and confronted the whole philosophical faculty. For three solid hours she was questioned on such subjects as Anglo-Saxon, Gothic and German Literature. At the end of the ordeal she was awarded the Ph. D. *summa cum laude* —an honor never before given to a foreigner or to a woman. Following with a year of study at Paris she returned to America, ready to assume the leadership that she has held continuously ever since.

An interesting development of the last years of her presidency has been the opening of Bryn Mawr in the summer to women industrial workers. Here, for some weeks, there have gathered ambitious women who have carried away a view of what education in college halls can offer. This experiment is unparalleled and of great social interest.

Her presidency at Bryn Mawr, lasting over thirty-seven years is in itself a worthy record, but that does not tell the whole story of her life work. One who has been intimately acquainted with the career of Miss Thomas points out three supreme achievements of this educator.

She gave scholarship the first place in the college. No one who has been under her leadership can say that elsewhere is a nobler conception of knowledge. Even when keeping up high standards meant a reduction in enrollment, Miss Thomas never thought of hesitating, but stood for scholarship.

It was under her regime that student government came to the front. Now used generally, it is sometimes forgotten that Bryn Mawr was among the first to inculcate these wholesome principles.

Miss Thomas' passion for freedom always matched her zeal for excellence. With all her own intense convictions she has steadily stood out for freedom of thought. She has never striven to

force her own convictions on her students or colleagues.

Chief Justice Taft, in speaking in 1922 said that "Miss Thomas is one who is going to save us from the false and the meretricious in education, and who has taught, and by the institution that she has established will continue to teach * * * * * that education can only be achieved by hard work and sacrifice."

LOUISE HOMER

Louise Homer has been most frequently chosen as the foremost in music. Wherever the opera is known and even into the far reaches of the countryside her voice is known and loved.

LOUISE HOMER
As Delilah in Samson and Delilah

The daughter of a Presbyterian minister, she heeded the early advice of those who heard her sing, and spent several years in Europe studying for the opera. She made her first appearance in Paris in 1898 in "Favorita."

This artist combines in a rare way the successful career and domestic life. She is the devoted mother of five children, and takes the greatest pleasure in her home life.

EDITH WHARTON

From the many names in the realm of literature that of Mrs. Edith Wharton has most often been placed first. Since 1889 Mrs. Wharton has been before the reading public with masterly works. Her first important novel was "The Greater Inclination," wherein she delineates the motives that lead a soul toward good or evil.

Courtesy of Charles Scribner's Sons
EDITH WHARTON

Later works have included "The Age of Innocence," "The House of Mirth" and "The Fruit of the Tree." In 1923 "A Son at the Front," was

brought out, one of the best books produced by the World War.

The range of Mrs. Wharton's genius is wide. She uses varied methods to portray wit and pathos, realism and romance. Her style is concise and is considered a model for the ambitious.

CECILIA BEAUX

The concensus of opinion gives Cecilia Beaux front rank as representative of art. She is a painter who has the enviable distinction of having had but one refusal of exhibition of a picture. Later this decision was reversed and the lone refusal was welcomed gladly.

The story of Cecilia Beaux is gratifying to all Americans, for she has proved that without the long years of foreign study usually considered an essential, one *can* reach the heights in art here in America. It was only after she had attained large success and then for only a year that she spent any time in Europe.

Recounting her early career she tells us that she has always striven for perfection, accepting nothing short of this. She is dominated by a passion to overcome every obstacle when painting a portrait, and has been able to delineate the whole character of the sitter in a marvelous degree. It is a mark of the highest commendation to say that her portraits are really *pictures* as well.

JULIA LATHROP

Julia Lathrop is a woman of today with a record that should awaken the warmest interest of all our readers. Her field is that of the American child and she will always be remembered as the Chief of the Children's Bureau during its first nine years.

Her achievement is truly great whether we think in terms of a quickened public conscience or of a widerspread knowledge of methods and means of child protection. As an official at Washington, Miss Lathrop proved herself to be a true stateswoman, a searcher after the social facts and an educator in the highest sense of the term. Appointed by President Taft, she served also under the Wilson administration, and proved herself beyond politics in her zeal for child welfare.

JULIA LATHROP

Her other activities have included work at Hull House with Miss Addams and investigation and work in the problems of caring for the insane. She is active in Chicago in work of the juvenile courts and helped establish the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy.

Outline of Leaders
and
Leading Events

(5000 B.C. to the Present Time)

In Ancient History
In the Middle Ages
In Modern History

A CHARIOT RACE

LEADERS AND LEADING EVENTS

5000 B.C. TO THE PRESENT TIME

IN concluding this volume wherein are treated some of the great characters of all times it is fitting to provide an outline in consecutive order, showing the outstanding individuals and events in chronological order. In this outline will be found the names of many leaders who have been discussed in the previous pages. They will thus be placed in their proper environment in the annals of history. Then there will be mentioned in these outlines many more, whose history there has not been space to tell.

In covering the vast span of time that is here outlined it has been decided to divide the record into three main parts.

I. ANCIENT HISTORY, which begins with the earliest written records and terminates A. D. 476, with the destruction of the Roman empire. It may be divided into six periods:

1. That olden time of which the records are scanty indeed, when the people of Babylon, Assyria and Egypt and the Hebrews were central on the world stage.

2. The Mosaic period from 2000 B. C. to 1200 B. C. when the principal character was Moses with his famous laws.

3. The Babylonian conquest, the rise of Greece and Rome, and the founding of the Persian empire, 1200 to 529 B. C.

4. To 323 B. C., the times that saw the greatest leaders in Greece and Persia.

5. To the Christian era, when the Greeks declined and the Romans became powerful.

7. From the time of Christ to 476 A. D. The Roman empire was divided after luxury and corruption held sway. Christianity was emerging.

II. THE MIDDLE AGES, which extend from the fall of Rome, A. D. 476, to the discovery of America, A. D. 1492. This may be divided into six periods:

1. Foundation of modern states of western Europe, 476-622.

2. The age of Mohammed and the propagation of his creed. Establishment of states which embraced his religion. Ending of this period with the treaty of Verdun in 843.

3. To the Dark Ages, 936.

4. The interesting Dark Ages, when Charlemagne's empire fell and the Capetian dynasty began to rule in France. Italy was divided up among a number of small princes. In Germany Otho began the long struggle against feudalism. Period ends in 1096.

5. To 1273, the romantic period of the Crusades.

6. The Renaissance, a revival of learning; the taking of Constantinople, to 1492 when Columbus discovered America.

III. MODERN HISTORY, which begins with 1492 and continues to the

present time, may also be divided into six periods:

1. The period of the Reformation, begun by Luther, and ending with the treaty of Westphalia in 1648. Many great events in Europe occurred in this span of years.

2. During the period from 1648 to the Declaration of American Independence when the United States began its national career.

3. From 1776 to the Congress of Vienna in 1815, which marked the fall of Napoleon. The United States constitution was established and in Europe the French Revolution occurred.

4. To the founding of the German empire in 1871, a notable event in European history.

5. To the World War in 1914, a period of unusual development.

6. To the present time. A period of reconstruction and gradual emergence from the world's most disastrous war.

FROM THE PREHISTORIC AGE TO THE TIME OF ABRAHAM, B. C. X-2000 (?)

Characteristics of the Centuries	Babylonia—Assyria	Egypt
B. C. 5000—4000 Modern research shows the existence of flourishing city states in the Mesopotamian region, whose origin and growth far antedate this period.	5000 (?) Kengi, or Sumerians, seem to be the advance guard of Babylonian civilization. 4500 (?) Struggles for mastery among petty Babylonian Kings. Kingdom of Shirpurla dominates, with Sungir (Shinar) as its capital.	5000 (?) Tombs of pre-dynastic Kings at Abydos reveal an advanced state of civilization. 4400 (?) Menes founds the old Egyptian empire, Memphis, the capital. Animal worship becomes prominent in Egyptian life.
B. C. 4000—3000 Period of the pyramid builders. The Accadians flourish in the Euphrates valley.	4000 (?) Nippur becomes the religious center. 3900 (?) Agade becomes the chief center of Northern Babylonia. 3800 (?) Sargon I of Accad, reached the Med terranean, and conquered Elam, a kingdom east of Babylonia. 3700 (?) Babylon made capital. 3200 (?) End of the dynasty of Sargon.	4000 (?) Athothis, King. 3733 (?) Khufu (Cheops) builder of the great pyramid, reigns. 3666 (?) Khafra (Chefren), pyramid builder, reigns. (Egyptian history almost a blank until the 11th dynasty.)
B. C. 3000—2000 Invasions of Accad and Babylonia by the Kings of Ur and the Elamites, respectively Babylonian dominions extended. First migrations from the Aryan center; Celts move westward; Indo-Persic tribes, south. Flood narratives accepted, and Sabbath observed among Semites.	3000 (?) Accad under Kings of Ur. 2500 (?) Isin takes high rank among Babylonian cities, and a dynasty is founded there. 2450 (?) Arabians and Elamites irrupt into Babylonia. 2400 (?) City of Babylon first rises into prominence. 2300 (?) Elam supreme in Babylonia. 2300-2250 (?) Hammurabi unites Babylonia.	3000 (?) Herakleopolis becomes the seat of government. 2650 (?) Usertesen III., King, conducts expedition against Ethiopia. 2400 (?) Government moved to Thebes. 2100. Egypt conquered by the Hyksos, or Shepherd Kings.

FROM ABRAHAM TO THE ASSYRIAN ASCENDENCY, B. C. 2000-1200

Characteristics of the Centuries	Hebrews	Babylonia-Assyria	Egypt	Europe
B. C. 2000—1200 Egyptian revolt from the Shepherd Kings. New Egyptian empire. Rise of Assyria—originally settled	2000 (?). Abraham, Hebrew patriarch.	2000 (?). Kassites (Arabians) conquer Babylonia. 1900. Assyria settled by Babylonian emigrants, Nineveh made the capital. 1700. Phenicia conquered by Egypt.	(Period of great obscurity.) 1800 (?). Revolt of Thebes against the Hyksos.	2000. Celts reached western Europe. Principal settlements made in central France. 1700. Arcadians migrate to Italy.

FROM ABRAHAM TO THE ASSYRIAN ASCENDANCY—Continued

Characteristics of the Centuries	Hebrews	Babylonia-Assyria	Egypt	Europe
by emigrants from Babylonia. Wars with Babylonia.			1670. New Empire expands under Thothmes III Palestine, Phenicia and part of Asia Minor conquered.	1582. Earliest date in the Parian chronicles of Greece, preserved in the Arundelian marbles.
Sidon, a Phenician city, at its zenith. Phenician colonies established round the Mediterranean.	1728 (?). Joseph; Migration of the Hebrews into Egypt.	1500. Long series of wars begun between Babylonia and Assyria.	1500. Egyptus reigns, and gives his name to the country.	1457. Kingdom of Mycenæ founded. 1453. First Olympic games at Elis.
Advanced civilization in Crete.				1400. Minos reigns in Crete.
Exodus of the Hebrews from Egypt under Moses.			1333. Rameses II wages war against the Hittites; oppresses the Hebrews.	
Hittites rise to great power, contending equally with Egypt and Assyria.	1491 (?). Moses; Exodus from Egypt.	1310. Tiglath-Adar I. conquers Babylonia. 1300 (?). Shalmaneser I. rules in Assyria.	1322. Menephthah, the supposed Pharaoh of the Exodus.	1266. Oedipus, King of Thebes. 1263. Argonautic expedition of Jason.
	1451 (?). Hebrews conquer the promised land, Canaan. Hebrew theocracy established.	1220. Assyria again independent.	1244-1091. Decay of the Empire under the Rameses Pharaohs.	1239. Latinus reigns in Italy. 1235. Thesus reigns in Athens for 30 years. 1233. Carthage founded by the Tyrians. 1225. First Theban war. 1220. Priam, King of Troy. 1216. Second Theban war. 1213. Helen (later of Troy), carried off by Theseus, afterward marries Menelaus.

THE ASSYRIAN-BABYLONIAN PERIOD B. C. 1200-529

Characteristics of the Centuries	The Hebrews		Asia and Africa	Europe
B. C. 1200—1000			1194. Trojan war. 1184. Troy taken.	
Heroic age of Greece; Hebrews reach their highest point of national power. Beginning of the Medo-Persian nations. Celts disperse over western Europe and into British Isles.	1161. Israel enslaved by the Philistines. Samson born. 1136. Samson slays 1000 Philistines.		1140. Tiglath-Pileser real founder of the Assyrian empire.	1152. Alba Longa built by Ascanius.
	1116. Samuel, last Judge of Israel. 1095. Saul becomes King of Israel.		1123. Chow dynasty begins in China.	1124. Æolian migration. Thebes, capital of Bœotia, founded.
	1048. David, King of all Israel.			1060. Athens governed by Archons.
	1036. Revolt of Absalom. 1016. Death of David. 1015. Solomon anointed King. 1004. Dedication of Temple.		1044. Ionian emigrants settle in Asia Minor.	1015. Minos gives Crete his code of laws.
B. C. 1000-900	975. Death of Solomon. Revolt of the Ten Tribes. Two kingdoms formed.		1000. Solomon and Hiram, King of Tyre, form an alliance; also Solomon and Pharaoh.	
Homeric age. Celts already in Britain, with bronze in use.			986. Utica built. Samos built.	976. Capys reigns in Alba Longa.
Phenician trade extended from Senegal to India.	**Judah**	**Israel**		
Temporary decline of Assyria.	971. Shishak, King of Egypt, takes Jerusalem.	975. Jeroboam establishes idolatry. 918. Ahab and Jezebel.	971. Shishak, of Egypt, plunders Jerusalem.	935. Bacchus, King of Corinth.

THE ASSYRIAN-BABYLONIAN PERIOD—Continued

Characteristics of the Centuries	Persia	Egypt	Europe
B. C. 600—500 Continued	535. Temple rebuilt at Jerusalem. 529. Death of Cyrus; Cambyses, King of Persia.	535. Made tributary by Cyrus.	

THE PERSIAN-MACEDONIAN PERIOD B. C. 529-323

Characteristics of the Centuries	Persia	Greeks	Rome, Etc.
			530. Cadiz built by the Carthaginians.
	525. Cambyses conquers Egypt and makes it a Persian province. Psammenitus, last King of Egypt. 521. Darius I King of Persia.	527. Pisistratus dies, after seizing Athens.	
	508. Darius extends his rule to the Indus.	510. Followers of Pisistratus expelled; Democracy established at Athens.	509. The Tarquins expelled from Rome. Brutus and Collatinus first Consuls. 507. The Capitol finished.
B. C. 500—400 Zenith of Persia; and the glorious century of Greece. Struggles of Patricians and Plebeians at Rome.	500. The Ionians revolt and burn Sardis.	497. Alexander I., King.	494. Tribunes of the people chosen. 491. Coriolanus banished.
	490. Darius sends an army of 500,000 into Greece. 487. Egypt revolts, and is subdued by Xerxes. 485. Xerxes, King of Persia.	490. Battle of Marathon.	
		483. Aristides banished.	
	481. Expedition of Xerxes into Greece; destroys Athens.	480. Battle of Thermopylæ. Battle of Salamis and defeat of Persians.	480. Carthaginians defeated. Hamilcar killed in battle.
	479. Returns defeated.	479. Battle of Platæa; Persian fleet destroyed at Mycale.	
	465. Xerxes assassinated. Artaxerxes I., King.	465. Third Messinian war. 461. Pericles impresses himself upon Grecian affairs.	460. Cincinnatus, Consul.
		457. Long walls of Athens begun.	456. Cincinnatus, Dictator. 451. Laws of the 12 tables.
	449. Persians defeated at Salamis. 440. Siege of Samos by Pericles.		
		431. Peloponnesian War. 416. War with Sicily.	
			413. Egypt regains independence.
		411. Athens governed by the "400." Alliance of Sparta with Persia.	411. Roman famine.
		408. Capture of Byzantium.	407. Carthaginians war on Sicily.
	401. Cyrus the Younger defeated. Retreat of the 10,000 under Xenophon.		
B. C. 400—300 Decline and fall of Persia before Alexander the Great; Greek language and Greek civilization extended all through the Levant. Roman wars with the	400. Delhi founded.	400. Return of the 10,000. 399. Archelaus murdered.	
	387. Greek cities of Asia made tributary to Persia.	392. The Illyrians invade Macedonia, and possess the throne.	390. Rome destroyed by the Gauls. 376. War between patricians and plebeians. Lucius Sextus, first plebeian Consul. 371. Curule magistrates appointed.

THE ASSYRIAN-BABYLONIAN PERIOD—Continued

Characteristics of the Centuries	Judah	Israel	Asia and Africa	Europe
B. C. 900—800 Accurate Assyrian chronology begins. Decline of Phenician cities.	888. Philistines plunder Jerusalem. 884. Usurpation and death of Athaliah.	884. Jehu, King. 840. Jehoash defeats King Benhadad of Syria. 770. Pul invades Israel, and is bribed to depart.	820. Arbaces, King of Assyria.	864. Romulus, King of Alba Longa. 814. The Kingdom of Macedon founded by Caranus. 769. Syracuse founded by Archias of Corinth.
B. C. 800—700 Ethiopian supremacy in Egypt. Assyrian conquests continue; Tiglath-Pileser III; Sargon; Babylonia rises to height of its power.	741. Pekah, King of Israel, besieges Jerusalem; 120,000 of his men slain. 726. Hezekiah abolishes idolatry.	721. Samaria taken by the Assyrians; Ten Tribes carried into captivity.	767. Sardanapalus, King of Assyria, Media subjected to Assyria. 747. Era of Tiglath-Pileser III; old Assyrian dynasty destroyed. 736. Tiglath-Pileser III conquers Syria and part of Israel. 721. Shalmaneser, King of Assyria, takes Samaria; Sargon II carries the Ten Tribes into captivity.	753. Building of Rome. 750. Sabine war. 743. First Messinian war.
	Hebrews			
	717. Hezekiah, King. 712. Sennacherib invades Judah.	717. Sennacherib, King of Assyria. 710. Media becomes a kingdom.		716. Romulus reputed murdered.
		Babylonia	**Egypt**	
B. C. 700—600 Zenith and fall of Nineveh, and Assyrian empire. Media rises to power. Perhaps last migrations from the Aryan center — Teutonic and Slav races.	677. Manasseh, carried to Babylon, is afterward restored. 606. Conquest of Jerusalem by Nebuchadnezzar	680. Babylon and Nineveh are united under Esarhaddon. 660. Assyria at height of power. 612. Nineveh a second time destroyed. 606. Nebuchadnezzar defeats Necho of Egypt, invades Judea and takes Jerusalem. 604. Nebuchadnezzar, King of Babylon.	660. Psammetichus, King of Egypt. Memphis becomes the capital. 610. Pharaoh-Necho, King of Egypt.	685. Second Messinian War. 678. Argæus, first King of Macedon. 672. Tullius Hostilius, King of Rome. 658. Byzantium founded. 640. Latins conquered by the Romans. Philip I King of Macedon. 616. Tarquinius Priscus, King of Rome.
B. C. 600—500 Zenith and fall of Babylon. Long reign of Nebuchadnezzar; he ravages Egypt. The seventy years' captivity of Judah. Rise of Persia.	591. Ezekiel prophesies in Chaldea. 586. Captivity of Judah completed, Jerusalem destroyed, Temple burned. 579. Jews carried to Babylon.	589. Cyrus invades Phenicia. 572. Takes Tyre. 562. Crœsus, King of Lydia, subjects Asia Minor.	594. Pharaoh-Hophra (Apries), King of Egypt. 581. Egypt invaded by Nebuchadnezzar.	602. Illyria conquered by Macedon. 594. Solon, Archon of Athens. 578. Servius Tullius, King of Rome. 565. First census of Rome; 84,700 citizens.
	Persia			
	560. Cyrus, King of Persia. 548. Cyrus conquers Lydia. 538. Takes Babylon.	538. Babylon taken by Cyrus the Persian.		539. The Phenicians emigrate to Gaul and build Massilia (now Marseilles).
	536. Persian empire founded by Cyrus, composed of Assyria, Media, and Persia. Captivity of the Jews ended.		536. Pythagoras visits Egypt.	

THE PERSIAN-MACEDONIAN PERIOD—Continued

Characteristics of the Centuries	Persia, Etc.	Greeks	Rome, Etc.
B. C. 400—300 Continued Samnites. Internal quarrels of the Romans diminish.		370. Predominance of Thebes. 360. War of the Allies against Athens. Decline of Grecian republics. 356. Second Sacred War. Birth of Alexander the Great. 344. Philip subdues Sparta. Aristotle visits Mityiene. 339. War with Macedonia.	369. Military tribunes abolished. 343. Samnian war, continued 53 years. 340. War with the Latins.
	338. Royal family destroyed with poison. 336. Darius III King. 334. Alexander the Great invades Persia. (See under Macedonia.) 331. Battle of Arbela. Darius III murdered. Alexander founds the Grecian or Macedonian monarchy.	338. Athenians and Thebans defeated at Chæronea. Philip master of Greece. 336. Philip assassinated by Pausanias; Alexander III surnamed the Great, succeeds to the throne. 335. Greeks conquered by Alexander the Great. Thebes destroyed. 334. Invades Persia. Defeats Persians at the Granicus. 333. Battle of Issus. 332. Egypt conquered by Alexander, and Alexandria built. 330. Æschines, the orator, banished. 327. Alexander invades India. 325. Demosthenes banished. 323. Ptolemy I restores the independence of Egypt.	337. First plebeian Prætor. 332. Caledonian monarchy (Scotland) founded by Fergus I. Roman treaty with Alexander the Great. 327. Second Samnite war.
	Alexander the Great dies in Babylonia. The Grecian cities revolt from Macedonia, and in 321 Antipater becomes Regent of Greece. Persia was reconquered from the Greeks, and remained tributary to Parthia till about A. D. 250.		

THE GREEK-ROMAN PERIOD, B. C. 323-1 A. D.

Characteristics of the Centuries	Rome, Etc.	Greeks	Syria, Judea	Egypt, Carthage
	321. Roman army surrender to the Samnites. 320. Samnites defeated at Lucceria. 317. Syracuse and Sicily usurped by Agathocles. 312. War with the Etruscans.	319. Polysperchon succeeds Antipater, and proclaims liberty to the Grecian cities. 317. Cassander assumes the throne of Macedon. Demetrius Phalerius governs Athens. 315. Cassander rebuilds Thebes. 312. Pyrrhus II greatest hero of his time. 306. Democracy established at Athens by Demetrius.	312. Seleucus I retakes Babylon. 301. Battle of Issus. Alexander's empire divided anew, into four parts: Syria, Macedon, Greece, Egypt. 291. Seleucus founds Antioch, Edessa, and Laodicea.	320. Ptolemy I (Soter) carries 100,000 Jews into Egypt. 301. Phenicia united to Egypt. 300. Golden Age of the Ptolemies.
B. C. 300—200 Semi - Greek kingdoms built on the ruins of the Persian		296. Philip IV. 294. Demetrius murders Alexander, and seizes throne of Macedon.		

THE GREEK-ROMAN PERIOD—Continued

Characteristics of the Centuries	Rome, Etc.	Greeks	Syria, Judea	Egypt Carthage
B. C. 300—200 Continued	286. Law of Hortensius, by which the decrees of the people had force of those of the senate.	286. Lysimachus, King of Thrace, subjects Macedonia.	285. The Scythians invade Bosporus.	
empire; in Egypt the Ptolemies; in Syria, the Antiochi.	281. The Tarentine war.	284. Achæn republic.	281. Antiochus Soter succeeds Seleucus.	283. Death of Ptolemy Soter. Ptolemy Philadelphus, King of Egypt.
Many Jews at Alexandria.		279. Irruption of the Gauls.		
Rome mistress of Italy, then victorious over Carthage, extends her influence to Greece and Spain. Peasant proprietors replaced by slaves in Italy.	266. Rome mistress of all Italy.	268. Second incursion of the Gauls. Athens taken by Antigonus.		
	264. First Punic war.		262. Invasion of the Gauls.	
		255. Athens joins the Achæan League.		
		250. Parthia revolts from Macedon.	246. Antiochus II. poisoned by his wife.	246. Ptolemy Euergetes subdues Syria.
	241. End of first Punic war.		226. Seleucus III King of Syria.	
	225. The Gauls repulsed in Italy.			321. Ptolemy Philopator, King.
	219. Hannibal takes Saguntum, and crosses the Alps.	220. Philip assists the Archæans. The social war begins.	219. War with Ptolemy.	
	218. Second Punic war. Hannibal defeats the Romans at Ticinus and Trebia.			
	216. Varro at Cannæ totally defeated by Hannibal.	211. Alliance of Philip and Hannibal.	211. Antiochus the Great, King of Syria.	
	206. Carthaginians driven out of Spain.	206. Spartans defeated at Mantinea.		205. Ptolemy Epiphanes, King.
	204. Scipio carries the war into Africa.		203. Judea conquered by Antiochus.	204. Roman general Scipio defeats Asdrubal and Syphax, an ally of Carthage.
	202. Hannibal defeated at battle of Zama. End of war.			202. End of second Punic war.
B. C. 200—100	200. Second Macedonian war.	199. Second war with Rome.		
Greece, Macedonia, Carthage and Spain under Roman rule; decline of the Roman oligarchy; the Gracchi begin the democratic revolution which ends in the empire.		198. Achæans and Spartans join the Romans against Macedon.	198. Jews assist Antiochus in expelling the Egyptian troops from Jerusalem.	198. Egypt loses her Syrian possessions.
			196. Hannibal joins Antiochus.	
	188. Syria is made a Roman province.		190. Scipio Asiaticus defeats Antiochus at Magnesia.	
		171. Third war with Rome.	172. Antiochus IV King. Greatly hated by the Jews.	174. Cato's embassy to Carthage.
	170. Tiberius and Caius Gracchus.		170. Jerusalem plundered by Antiochus Epiphanes.	
Eastern luxury introduced among the Romans.	167. Census of Rome, 327,000 citizens.	168. Macedon becomes a Roman province.	165. Judas Maccabeus expels the Syrians.	
		165. Romans enter Achaia.	161. Treaty with the Romans.	
	155. Romans unsuccessful in Spain.			152. Masinissa defeats the Carthaginians.
		146. Corinth destroyed by the Romans.		146. Carthage taken and destroyed by the Romans.
	149. Third Punic war. Conquest of Carthage and of Corinth. Greece annexed to the Roman empire.	Greece becomes a Roman province under the name Achaia.		
			142. Antiochus VI King.	145. Ptolemy Physcon becomes sole King of Egypt.
	133. Spain becomes a Roman province.		134. Invasion of Judea.	
			130. John Hyrcanus delivers Judea from Syria. Conquered by Parthia.	129. Physcon driven from his throne for cruelty

THE GREEK-ROMAN PERIOD—Continued

Characteristics of the Centuries	Rome	Syria, Judea	Egypt, Carthage
B. C. 200—100 Continued	123. Caius Gracchus, Tribune. 113. First great migration of the German nations. 104. Teutoni defeat 80,000 Romans on banks of the Rhone. 99. Birth of Julius Cæsar.	105. War with Egypt.	123. Carthage rebuilt. 107. Alexander I King of Egypt.
B. C. 100—1 A. D. The Romans govern all the countries around the Mediterranean. Corrupt rule of the Roman oligarchy is followed by civil wars, and establishment of the empire.	91. Social war in Italy. 88. War with Pontus. 82. Sylla defeats Marius, and is created perpetual dictator. Plunder of the temple of Delphi. 75. Bithynia a Roman province. 65. Syria becomes a Roman province. 63. Catiline's conspiracy detected and suppressed by Cicero. 60. First triumvirate—Pompey, Crassus, and Cæsar.	97. Alexandra, Queen of Janneus, governs Judea. Mithridates conquers Cappadocia. 86. Takes Bithynia. 66. Defeated by Pompey, Syria passes under Rome. 63. Judea a Roman province.	82. Revolt in Upper Egypt Thebes destroyed. 65. Ptolemy Auletes, King.
	55. Cæsar passes the Rhine, defeats the Germans and Gauls, and invades Britain. 53. Crassus defeated and killed in Parthia. 51. Cæsar completes conquest of Gaul, which becomes a Roman province. 49. Civil war between Cæsar and Pompey. Pompey defeated; Cæsar dictator. 48. Battle of Pharsalia—Pompey defeated by Cæsar. Death of Pompey in Egypt. 47. Cæsar takes Alexandria, and conquers Egypt.		55. Auletes restored. 46. The African war.
	44. Cæsar assassinated in Roman Senate. Antony master of Rome. 43. Second triumvirate—Octavius Cæsar, Marc Antony, and Lepidus. 42. Battle of Philippi; defeat and death of Brutus and Cassius.		45. Cæsar rebuilds Carthage. 43. Cleopatra poisons her brother, and rules alone. 36. Cleopatra obtains from Antony a grant of Phenicia, Cyrene, and Cyprus.
	32-31. War between Antony and Octavius. By the battle of Actium (31), Octavius acquires the empire. 30. Republic of Rome becomes a monarchy. Population of Rome 4,100,000 citizens.		31. Defeat at Actium. 30. Suicide of Antony and Cleopatra; Egypt passes to Rome.
	27. Titles of Augustus and Emperor conferred on Octavius. 23. Agrippa subdues all Spain. 21. Athens finally subjected to Rome. 19. Death of Vergil. 18. Parthians defeated.		
	15. Cantabria, Austria, and other territory conquered by Drusus, is added to the empire. 13. Augustus assumes the title of Pontifex Maximus. 11. Germany subdued by Germanicus. 10. Egyptian religion displaces national religion. 5. Varrus appointed Governor of Syria, and Cyrenius Governor of Judea. 4. Cymbeline, King of Britain. Advent of Christ, four years before the so-called Christian era. 3. Death of Herod. 2. Cæsar confirms the will of Herod.		

PERIOD OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE, A. D. 1-476

Characteristics of the Centuries	Development of Christianity	The Roman Empire
1—100 A. D. Christianity founded amid persecutions.	8. Jesus reasons with the doctors. 25. Pontius Pilate, Governor of Judea.	1. Caius Cæsar makes peace with the Parthians. Tiberius returns to Rome. 6. Varrus, encamped on the Weser, governs lower Germany like a Roman province. 14. Augustus dies at Nola; is succeeded by Tiberius as Emperor. 19. The Jews are banished from Rome. 26. Thrace becomes a Roman province.

PERIOD OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE—Continued

Characteristics of the Centuries	Development of Christianity	The Roman Empire	
1—100 A. D. Continued	29. Twelve Apostles sent abroad. 33. Crucifixion of the Saviour, Friday, April 3, at 3 p. m. 34. St. Paul converted to Christianity. 41. Herod's persecutions. 50. Paul preaches at Athens. 60. Paul imprisoned in Rome. 64. First persecution of Christians by Nero. Paul visits Jerusalem. 70. Destruction of Jerusalem, by Titus. 95. Second persecution of the Christians by Domitian.	30. Agrippina banished. 37. Tiberius succeeded by Caligula, noted for his profligacy. 54. Nero, Emperor; a profligate and tyrant. 61. Revolt of the Britons under Queen Boadicea. 64. Nero sets fire to Rome; accuses Christians. 80. Agricola governs Britain, reduces Wales and enters Caledonia. 98. Trajan, Emperor; Roman empire at its greatest extent.	
100—200 A. D. Zenith of Roman empire. The good emperors. Persecutions of the Christians continued.	107. Third persecution by Trajan. 118. Fourth persecution by Adrian.	117. Hadrian, Emperor; makes a journey through the provinces; visits Britain, and builds there a wall from the Tyne to Solway Firth; builds a wall from the Rhine to the Danube. 138. Antoninus, Emperor; 145-152 defeats the Moors, Germans, and Dacians; stops the persecution of the Christians. 161. Marcus Aurelius, Emperor; 169, war with Marcomanni. 193. Septimus Severus, Emperor. A vigorous ruler.	
200—300 A. D. Emperors chosen by the army. Frontier tribes troublesome. Persecutions continue.	202. Fifth persecution under Severus. 235. Sixth persecution under Maximinus. 250. Seventh persecution of the Christians. 272. Persecution of Christians under Aurelian. 283. The Jewish Talmud composed. Religious ceremonies multiplied.	202. Persecutes the Christians; builds the wall of Severus in Britain. 211. Dies at York, in Britain. 223. Artaxerxes begins the new kingdom of Persia. 232. Persian war. 251. Confederacy of the Franks established between the Rhine and Elbe. The Persians victorious in Asia Minor. 256–69. Goths conduct expeditions into Asia Minor and Greece. 261. Sapor, the Persian, takes Antioch, Tarsus, and Cæsarea. 268. Claudius II defeats an army of 320,000 Goths. 270. Aurelian, a great warrior, becomes Emperor; 271, defeats the Goths and Alemanni; 273, reduces Palmyra, and takes Queen Zenobia prisoner; 274, Franks, Spain, and Britain reduced to obedience; 275, Aurelian killed near Byzantium.	
300—400 A. D. Constantine moves the capital of the empire to Constantinople, and professes Christianity.	303. Persecution under Diocletian. 306. Persecution of Christians stopped by Constantius. 325. Council of Nice. 337. Eleventh persecution.	284. Diocletian, Emperor. 291. The Franks master Batavia and Flanders. 304. Diocletian and Maximian resign the empire to Constantius and Galerius. 306. Constantine the Great, first Christian Emperor, defeats the Franks. 337. Death of Constantine, and the accession of his three sons to the empire. 364. Death of Jovian, and the accession of Valentinian and Valens, under whom the empire is divided.	
		Western Empire	**Eastern Empire**
		368. The Saxons invade Britain, but are defeated by Theodosius. 375. Valentinian gains victory over the Germans; succeeds to the Eastern Empire on the death of Valens.	376. Hungary (ancient Pannonia) invaded by the Huns, from whom it is named.
	379. Prerogatives of the Roman See much enlarged. 381. Second General Council of Constantinople. 392. St. Chrysostom, Patriarch of Constantinople.	379. The Lombards first leave Scandinavia, and defeat the Vandals. 392. Theodosius becomes sole Emperor of the East and West. Complete downfall of Paganism.	379. Theodosius the Great becomes a zealous supporter of Christianity.

PERIOD OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE—Continued

Characteristics of the Centuries	Development of Christianity	Western Empire	Eastern Empire
400—500 A. D.		401. Europe overrun by the Visigoths.	408. Theodosius II a child, Emperor.
Rise of Christian Monasticism. Great church disputes and growing corruptions. Increasing frontier troubles.		410. The Goths under Alaric sack and burn Rome.	
		412. Rise of the Vandal power in Spain.	
		420. The Franks form a kingdom, under Pharamond, on the lower Rhine.	420. Persian war.
		426. Britain evacuated by the Romans.	
	431. Third General Council at Ephesus.		431. Armenia divided by the Persians and Romans.
	432. St. Patrick preaches the gospel in Ireland.	433. Attila forms an immense empire from China to the Atlantic.	
		441. Roman territories invaded by the Huns, Persians, and Saxons.	437. Pannonia, Dalmatia, and Noricum gained from the Western empire.
	443. The Manichæan books burned in Rome.	448. Merovaeus I first King of the Merovingians.	
	451. Fourth General Council at Chalcedon.	451. Arrival of Saxons in Britain under Hengist and Horsa.	450. Marcian, Emperor, refuses to pay tribute to the Huns.
	465-476. Oligarchy of the bishops of Rome, Constantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jerusalem. The church now begins to assume a political aspect.	468. The Visigoths under Eric establish their kingdom in Spain.	474. Zeno, Emperor; a turbulent reign marked by debauchery and conspiracies.
		476. Odoacer, King of the Herulii, takes Rome, and the Western empire ends 1228 years after the founding of the city. Commencement of the Kingdom of Italy under Odoacer.	475. Theodoric becomes chief of the Ostrogoths and invades the empire.

FROM THE FALL OF ROME TO THE AGE OF MOHAMMED A. D. 476-622

Characteristics of the Centuries	The Eastern Empire	Great Britain and Ireland	Italy and the Church	France
400—500 A. D. Continued	480. An earthquake destroys greater part of Constantinople.		484. Christians persecuted by the Vandals.	481. Clovis I founder of the French monarchy.
		487. The Saxons defeated by Prince Arthur.		485. Battle of Soissons gained by Clovis.
		490. Sussex becomes a kingdom.		486. Rise of the feudal system in France under Clovis.
	491. The Green and Blue factions.		493. Italy conquered by Theodoric. Odoacer put to death.	
			494. The Roman Pontiff asserts his supremacy.	
			496. Christianity introduced into France.	
500—600 A. D.	502. Invasions by the Persians.			510. Clovis makes Paris his capital.
Great disorders in the West. Beginnings of Feudalism; power of the clergy increases. In the East, the great reign of Justinian.	518. Justinian I begins a brilliant reign over the Eastern or Byzantine empire.	519. Prince Arthur defeated by Cedric, who begins the third Saxon Kingdom of Wessex.		
	527. Celebrated Justinian code of laws.			
	529. Belisarius, the famous general, defeats the Persians.	530. Kingdom of Essex.	529. Order of the Benedictine Monks instituted at Monte Cassino, near Naples.	532. Burgundy conquered by Childebert.
	534. Defeats the Vandals in Africa.			
	535. Subdues Italy.			
	536. Takes Naples.			
	537. Takes Rome.		537. Italy conquered by Belisarius, for Justinian.	536. Ostrogoths surrender their possessions in Gaul to the French king.
			539. War, famine, and pestilence, Milan ravaged by the Goths	
	540. North Africa, Corsica, and Sardinia annexed to the Eastern empire.	542. Prince Arthur murdered in Cornwall.		
	558. A plague extends over Europe and Asia and lasts about 50 years.			558. Clotaire I, King.
		559. Saxon heptarchy begins.	568. Italy conquered by the Lombards.	

FROM THE FALL OF ROME TO THE AGE OF MOHAMMED, A. D. 476-622—Continued

Characteristics of the Centuries	The Eastern Empire	Great Britain and Ireland	Italy and the Church	France
500—600 A. D. Continued	569. The Turks first mentioned in history. They send an embassy to Justin II and form an alliance.	575. East Anglia formed into a kingdom, whence the origin of the name England.	575. First monastery built in Bavaria.	
600—700 A. D. Rise and wonderful spread of Mohammedanism from Arabia to Siude on the east, and Carthage on the west. Christianizing of Germany.	600. Eastern empire spread over Hungary, Poland, and Prussia, under Tiberius II. 602. Invasion of the Persians. 610. Heraclius takes Constantinople, kills Phocas, the emperor, and makes himself ruler. 612. Mohammed publishes the Koran. Syria ravaged by the Arabs. 614. Jerusalem taken by the Persians.	607. Supremacy of the pope acknowledged.	598. St. Augustine, first archbishop of Canterbury, introduces Christianity into Britain. 607. The Pantheon of Rome dedicated to Christianity.	

THE AGE OF MOHAMMED TO THE TREATY OF VERDUN, A. D. 622-843

Characteristics of the Centuries	The Eastern Empire	Great Britain and Ireland	Italy and the Church	France
600—700 A. D. Continued Islamism and the power of the caliphs established in the East. In the caliphs were united the highest spiritual and regal authority.	622. The Hegira, or Mohammed's flight from Mecca to Medina. 633. Omar, Caliph, takes Jerusalem, which is held by the Saracens 463 years.	633. Bretwold V embraces Christianity.	625-640. Churches of Jerusalem, Antioch and Alexandria lost to the Christian world by the sweep of Mohammedanism.	628. Dagobert I. builds the Church of St. Denis, the sepulcher of the French kings. 638. Kingdom divided by Clovis II and Sigebert.
	680. Kingdom of Bulgaria founded.	690. The name England first used.	680. The Sixth General Council called at Constantinople.	690. Pepin d'Heristal, King.
700-800 A. D. Christianizing of Germany continues. Hostile caliphates of Bagdad and Cordova. Mohammedan advance in the West checked by Charlemagne, who nominally restores the Western Roman empire. Norse ravages begin.	698. Carthage destroyed by the Saracens, and the north coast of Africa subjugated. 716. Leo III, Emperor. The Saracens invest Constantinople, by land and sea. City saved by Greek fire. 762. Caliph Almanzor builds Bagdad and makes it his capital.	700. Anglo-Saxon octarchy. 705. Alfred the Wise in Northumbria.	698. Picts adopt Christianity. 704. The first province given to the pope, John VI. 726. TheEmperor Leo forbids image worship. 752. The pope dethrones Childeric, King of France, by a papal decree. 755. Beginning of the pope's temporal power.	700. Aquitaine, Burgundy, and Provence become separate dukedoms. 725. Charles Martel subdues Bavaria. 732. Defeats the Saracens at Tours. 752. End of Merovingian line of French kings. Pepin the Short, first of the Carlovingian line. 764. Extirpates the Huns.
800-900 A. D. Norse ravages continue. Private wars. Charlemagne's empire falls to pieces.	785. Empire invaded by Haroun-al-Raschid, caliph of Bagdad. 803. The Saracens ravage Asia Minor.	787. First recorded invasion of the Danes, the sea kings and vikings.	787. Seventh General Council of Nice. 800. The pope separates from the Eastern empire and becomes supreme bishop of the Western. Charlemagne reforms the church. Many bishoprics founded.	800. Charlemagne founds the new Western empire and is crowned at Rome. 802. Receives an embassy from Haroun-al-Raschid. 806. Charlemagne divides the empire among his sons, only one of whom survived him—Louis I.

THE AGE OF MOHAMMED TO THE TREATY OF VERDUN—Continued

Characteristics of the Centuries	The Eastern Empire	Great Britain and Ireland	Italy and the Church	France
800-900 A. D. Continued	822. Constantinople besieged by the Saracens. The Bulgarians raise the siege. 829. Theophilus, Emperor.	827. The seven kingdoms or heptarchy united by Egbert under the name of England, or the land of the Angles. Invasion of the Danes.	817. College of Cardinals founded. 824. Christianity carried to Denmark and Sweden.	817. Louis I divides the empire. 841. Another division of the empire, Charles I, King of France; Louis I, King of Germany; Lothaire, King of Italy.

FROM THE TREATY OF VERDUN TO THE DARK AGES, 843-936 A. D.

Characteristics of the Centuries	Eastern Empire	The British Isles	Italy and the Church	France and Germany	Spain, Russia and Lesser Countries
800-900 A. D. Continued	844. Decline of the caliphate begins. Frequent wars between the Greeks and the Saracens.		844. Ignatius, patriarch of Constantinople. 856. Louis II establishes his court at Pavia, and rules Italy.	843. Treaty of Verdun, Charles I (the Bald), King of France. 858. Invasion of France by Louis the German, who is defeated.	843. Ramiro I elected king of Oviedo. 857. Garcia Ximines founds the kingdom of Navarre.
	867. Basil inaugurates the Macedonian dynasty.	867. The Danes conquer Northumberland. 872. Alfred the Great defeats the Danes.	867. Eighth Council at Constantinople.	868. Lorraine annexed to France.	862. Ruric the Norman, grand duke of Novgorod. 875. Harold, first king of Norway.
900-1000 A. D. Norse ravages and conquests continue; also private wars.	890. Southern Italy subject to the Greek empire. 904. Russian expedition against Constantinople.	891. Renewed invasion of the Danes. 901. Edward the Elder the first to take the title of "Rex Anglorum."	912. The Normans in France embrace Christianity.	912. Conrad I, Emperor.	901. Republics of Venice and Genoa founded.

PERIOD OF THE DARK AGES, 936-1096 A. D.

Characteristics of the Centuries	Eastern Empire	The British Isles	Italy and the Church	France and Germany	Spain, Russia and Lesser Countries
	937. Romanus gains a naval victory over the Russians. 945. The Empress Helen usurps the throne.	952. Malcolm I, King of Scotland. 955. Dunstan, abbot of Glastonbury, rises to great power.	955. Baptism of Olga, and conversion of Russia to Christianity.	936. Louis VI, King. Otho the Great, Emperor. 950. Bohemia annexed. 954. Lothaire I confers the dukedoms of Burgundy and Aquitaine on Hugh the Great.	945. Swatoslav, King of Russia. 955. Sancho I, King of Leon.
1000-1100 A. D. Increasing and beneficent power of the church exerted in the direction of order.	1018. Bulgaria again reduced to a Grecian province.	1016. Edmund II fights six battles with Canute, King of the Danes with whom he divides the kingdom.	989. Greek Christianity propagated in Russia by Vladimir. 1024. John XIX, Pope.	988. Hugh Capet, King, and founder of the Capetian line of French kings. 1024. Conrad II, first of the Franconian line.	1016. Canute II, King of Denmark. 1019. Norway conquered by Canute. Danish ascendancy.

PERIOD OF THE

Characteristics of the Centuries	Italy and the Church	Eastern Empire	The British Isles
1000-1100 A. D. Continued		1042. First invasion of the Seljuk Turks.	1042. The Saxon line restored under Edward the Confessor.
Normans in Italy and Sicily.	1048. Leo IX, the first Pope to keep an army.	1043. The Russians invade Thrace with 100,000 men and are repulsed by the Greeks.	
The Norman conquest of England; which as regards good government far surpasses all other countries.		1054. Theodora, last of the Macedonian dynasty.	1051. William, Duke of Normandy, visits England.
Quarrels between popes and emperors begin.	1066. Pope Alexander II deposes Harold, and gives England to William the Conqueror. The papacy at the height of its power.	1067. Emperor Romanus III defeated and taken prisoner by the Turks.	1066. Harold II, King, killed at the battle of Hastings. William the Conqueror, King. End of the Anglo-Saxon line.
	1070. Lanfranc, Archbishop of Canterbury.		1070. Feudal system introduced.
	1073. Quarrel of Pope Gregory VII (Hildebrand) with the Emperor Henry IV.	1074. Syria and Palestine subdued by Melek Shah.	
	1076. Submission of Henry IV to the Pope.		1076. Rebellion in Normandy.
	1084. Triumph of Henry IV over Gregory. The order of the Carthusians instituted by Bruno.	1081. Alexius I (Comnenus), Emperor. Robert Guiscard invades the empire and defeats Alexius.	
	1095. Peter the Hermit preaches against the Turks.		1087. William invades France and is killed at Nantes. 1093. Malcolm III, of Scotland, invades England, and is slain near Alnwick castle.

PERIOD OF THE

Characteristics of the Centuries	Italy and the Church	Eastern Empire	The British Isles
1000-1100 A. D. Continued	1096. The First Crusade.		
	1100. Study of theology receives new impulse.	1099. Invasion by the Crusaders. 1104. Battle of Acre.	1100. Henry I, King of England, unites the Normans and Saxons.
1100—1200 A. D.		1118. Tyre taken by Crusaders.	
Quarrels between popes and emperors continue; zenith of papal power; Frederick Barbarossa. Criticism revived.	1123. First Lateran, or Ninth General Council.		1124. David I promotes civilization in Scotland.
	1127. Pope Honorius II makes war against Roger, King of Sicily. 1139. Second Lateran, or Tenth General Council.		
Private wars lessen; advance in power of kings and of towns at expense of the feudal baronage.	1147. The Second Crusade.	1143. Manuel Comnenus, Emperor.	
	1154. Pope Adrian IV, an Englishman.	1156. Manuel forms the design of conquering Italy and the West but fails.	1154. Henry II, King of England.
The Crusaders.			1158-1164. Ascendancy of Thomas à Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury.
Improved judicial arrangements in England.	1167. Rome taken by Frederick Barbarossa.		

DARK AGES, 936-1096

France	Germany	Spain	Russia and Lesser Countries
	1039. Henry III defeats the Bohemians and Hungarians.		1036. Russia reunited by Jaroslav.
1046. Dispute between William the Conqueror and William of Arques for the duchy of Normandy.	1053. Henry causes his son, Henry, to be proclaimed King of the Romans. This title was applied for several centuries to the emperor's eldest son.		1054. Russia divided a second time. 1055. The Turks reduce Bagdad and overturn the empire of the caliphs. 1059. Ingo I, first Christian King of Sweden.
1066. William, Duke of Normandy, claims the crown of England and wars on Harold to obtain it.		1065. Alphonzo, King of Castile and Leon.	1065. Jerusalem taken by the Saracens.
1070. Rise of the troubadours in Provence.	1072. Henry IV summoned before the Pope for selling the investiture of bishops; treats the mandate with contempt. 1073. Summoned again.	1068. Flight of Alphonzo to Toledo.	1068. Olaf III, King of Norway.
1079. Birth of Abelard.	1076. Henry sends an ambassador to depose the Pope, and is excommunicated. Undergoes penance and submission. 1080. Henry degrades the Pope and triumphs.	1076. Time of the Cid.	
1087. War with England. Robert, Duke of Normandy, opposes William Rufus.	1093. The Popes continue their struggle against the empire.	1085. Toledo taken from the Moors by the Cid. 1094. Pedro I, King of Navarre and Aragon.	1084. Bohemia made a kingdom by Henry IV of Germany.

CRUSADES, A. D. 1096-1237

France	Germany	Spain	Russia and Lesser Countries
1096. Many French noblemen take part in the First Crusade.			
	1109. Henry V enters Italy, takes the Pope prisoner, and compels him to crown him.	1104. Alphonzo I, King of Navarre and Aragon. 1118. Alphonzo captures Saragossa.	1105. War between Norway and the Wends.
1120. Rivalry between England and France begins.			
	1125. Lothaire II opposed by Frederick, and Conrad, Duke of Suabia.		1128. Riga on the Baltic founded.
	1141. Dissensions of the Guelphs and Ghibelines.	1139. Portugal becomes a kingdom under Henry of Besancon.	1147. Moscow founded.
1147. Louis VII joins the Second Crusade.	1152. Frederick I, Emperor of Germany and Italy.		1150. Eric X, King of Sweden.
1159. War with the English.	1158. The Emperor Frederick receives the title of King of Bohemia.	1157. Castile and Leon divided.	1158. Venice a great maritime power.
1170. Rise of the Waldenses.	1167. Rome taken by Frederick.		1167. League of the Italian cities. 1171. Saladin, Sultan of Egypt, extends his dominions. Conquers Syria, Assyria and Arabia.

PERIOD OF THE

Characteristics of the Centuries	Italy and the Church	Eastern Empire	The British Isles
1200—1300 A. D.	1190. Third Crusade.	1190. Iconium taken by Frederick Barbarossa but afterward restored.	1189. Richard I engages in the Third Crusade.
Rise of Universities, and of Mendicant Friars.	1198. Power of the Pope supreme over temporal matters.		1193. John attempts to seize the crown in the absence of Richard.
Quarrels between popes and emperors still continue; Frederick II of Germany.	1202. The Fourth Crusade. Constantinople taken.	1204. The Crusaders plunder Constantinople.	1200. John, King of England.
Last Crusades.	1215. Fourth Lateran Council, against the Albigenses.		1215. Magna Charta signed at Runnymede.
English liberties recognized by the crown.	1217. Fifth Crusade.		1216. Henry III, King.
Hanse League established.	1243. Struggle of Pope Innocent IV with the Emperor Frederick.		
			1258. Famous parliament at Oxford.
	1265. Dominion of Italy passes to the Pope.	1260. Emperor Michael Palaeologus recovers Constantinople.	1265. First regular parliament Civil war.

PERIOD OF THE

Characteristics of the Centuries	Italy and the Church	Eastern Empire	The British Isles
1200—1300 A. D. Continued	1274. Fourteenth General Council at Lyons.		
		1281. Othman establishes an independent rule in the north of Asia Minor.	1276. War between England and Wales.
Great conquest of Tartars in Asia; they overrun Russia and establish a dynasty at Moscow.	1296. Struggle of the church with France.		1283. England and Wales united. Robert Bruce and John Balliol contend for the crown of Scotland.
			1297. War between England and Scotland.
		1299. Othman invades Nicomedia, and establishes the Ottoman empire.	
	1303. Papal power declines.		
1300—1400 A. D.			
			1306. Robert Bruce proclaimed King of Scotland. War with England continued.
Growth of cities and trade—especially in Italy, where also literature and art, inspired by Dante and Giotto, make progress.	1309. Seat of the popes transferred to Avignon.		
	1311. General Council at Vienna.		
Popes at Avignon; papacy now terribly corrupt.		1326. Orkhan, Sultan of the Turks, makes Prusa his capital.	1327. Peace. Independence of Scotland.
Era of Wyclif: his teaching spreads in Bohemia.	1339. Struggle in Rome between the Colonna and the Ursini.		1338. Struggle for the French crown begins; lasts 120 years.
Invention of gunpowder.	1347. Democracy in Rome under Rienzi, last of the Tribunes.		1346. Battle of Cressy.
Mariner's compass comes into use in the West.	1354. Rienzi killed; papal dominion restored.	1355. John Palæologus, emperor.	1356. Edward, the Black Prince, wins the battle of Poitiers.

CRUSADES—Continued

France	Germany	Spain	Russia and Lesser Countries
1183. The peace of Constance reëstablishes the independence of the Italian republics.	1183. Italy independent by treaty of Constance.	1188. Alphonzo IX, King of Leon.	1186. Saladin directs all his efforts against the Crusaders.
1190. Philip Augustus one of the leaders of the Third Crusade.	1190. Henry VI, Emperor and King of Italy.		1193. Battle of Ascalon. Saladin defeated. Death of Saladin.
1204. Normandy reunited to France.	1212. Frederick II, Emperor.	1212. The Christians gain the Battle of Navas de Tolosa.	1213. Jurje II.
		1217. Ferdinand, King of Castile.	1216. Tartary overrun by Genghis Khan.
		1230. Castile and Leon united by Ferdinand III, who takes large territory from the Moors.	1236. Second Mongol'an invasion. Moscow burned.
1248. Louis IX leads the Seventh Crusade.	1243. The Hanseatic League.		1238. Russian independence overthrown by the Tartars.
	1250. Conrad IV, Emperor.	1253. The Alhambra founded.	
			1259. Kubla Khan builds Pekin and makes it his capital.
1270. Louis IX sets out on the last Crusade.			

RENAISSANCE, A. D. 1273-1492

France	Germany	Spain	Russia and Lesser Countries
	1273. Rudolf, Emperor, founds House of Hapsburg.	1274. Crown of Navarre passes to France.	
1276. France at war with Castile.			
			1290. Wenceslas, King of Bohemia, takes Cracow.
1297. Invasion of Flanders.			
	1298. Adolphus, Emperor, deposed, and Albert I. enthroned.		1299. Foundation of the Ottoman Empire.
		1300. Dissensions in the Moorish state.	
1304. War with Flanders.	1304. Rise of the Swiss towns.		
	1306. Rudolf of Austria, Emperor.		
			1307. Swiss Republic founded.
	1308. Henry of Luxemburg, Emperor. General insurrection in Switzerland.		
	1314. Louis of Bavaria and Frederick of Austria contend for the crown.	1312. Alphonso XI, King of Castile and Leon.	
1316. Philip V succeeds by virtue of the Salic law, now first established.	1322. Frederick of Austria defeated.		1319. The Oligarchy of Venice established.
		1327. Arrival of 200,000 Moors to assist Granada.	
1338. War with England.			
		1340. Moors defeated at Tarifa.	
1346. Normandy overrun by Edward of England.			
			1353. Establishment of the Ottomans in Europe.
	1355. Promulgation of the Golden Bull.		
1356. King John defeated and taken prisoner at Poitiers. Charles the Dauphin, Regent.			1369. Tamerlane makes Samarcand the capital of his new empire.
			1382. Moscow burned.
1386. Fruitless attempt to invade England.			

PERIOD OF

Characteristics of the Centuries	Italy and the Church	Eastern Empire	The British Isles
1300—1400 A. D. Continued		1389. Bajazet, Sultan of the Turks.	
1400—1500 A. D.			1399. Henry IV, King. House of Lancaster begins.
Failure of the Council of Constance to reform the Church.		1402. Bajazet defeated and made prisoner by Tamerlane, at the battle of Angora.	
Turks take Constantinople.		1403. Solyman I, Sultan of the Turks.	1406. James I, King of Scotland.
Revival of learning and advance of art in the West—especially in Italy.	1416. Huss and Jerome burned for heresy.		1415. Gains the battle of Agincourt.
Consolidation of France and Spain.		1425. Emperor John VII visits Italy to obtain help against the Turks.	1422. Death of Henry V Ascension of Henry VI War with France.
End of Tartar rule in Russia.	1429. Schism of the west ended.		
Invention of printing.			
Gunpowder begins to be of great importance.		1444. Vladislas, King of Poland, defeated and killed by the Turks.	1444. Truce with France. Marriage of Henry to Margaret of Anjou.
Formation of modern "middle classes."	1448. Concordat of Aschaffenburg, by which the liberties of the German church are compromised.	1448. Constantine XII, last of the Greek emperors.	1450. Insurrection of Jack Cade. Wars of the Roses. Richard, Duke of York, claims the throne.
Maritime discoveries: The cape route to India; The "New World."		1453. Siege and capture of Constantinople by the Turks, ending the Eastern Empire.	
End of the Middle Ages.	1454. Struggle between Cosmo de' Medici and the aristocracy.	**Ottoman Empire**	1455. Wars of the Roses begin.
	1458 The French rule in Genoa.	1458. Greece subjected to the Turks.	1460. James III, King of Scotland.
			1461. Edward IV, King. House of York.
	1469. Lorenzo de' Medici succeeds Piero at Florence.		1470. Henry VI restored by Warwick.
	1471. Increase of the power of the Medici. Rise of learning. Sixtus IV, Pope.		1471. Return of Edward IV. Deaths of Warwick and Henry VI.
			1475. Edward IV invades France.
		1480. Otranto taken.	1480. War between England and Scotland.
		1481. Bajazet II, Sultan.	

PERIOD OF THE REFORMATION AND

Characteristics of the Centuries	Italy and the Church	Great Britain	Germany	Spain and Portugal
1400—1500 A. D. Continued	1492. Alexander VI, Pope.	1492. Henry VII invades France.		1492. Conquest of Granada. Discovery of America by Columbus.
1500—1600 A. D.			1493. Maximilian I, Emperor.	1498. Vasco da Gama reaches India via Cape of Good Hope.
The Reformation. Immense development of new life in Europe.	1500. Partition of Naples between France and Spain.			

RENAISSANCE—Continued

France	Germany	Spain	Russia and Lesser Countries
			1395. Tamerlane invades Russia. Russia under the Mongol Tartars until 1462.
	1400. Robert, Count of Palatine, Emperor.		1399. Invasion of India by Tamerlane.
1415. Defeat by the English at Agincourt.	1411. Sigismund (King of Hungary), Emperor.	1416. Alphonzo V, King of Aragon and Sicily.	1419. The Hussite war in Bohemia.
1422. Henry VI proclaimed at Paris King of France and England.			
1427. Orleans besieged by the English.			
1429. Saved by Joan of Arc. Charles VII crowned at Rheims.		1430. War between Castile and Granada.	
1431. Joan of Arc burned			1437-1438. Rise of Portugal.
	1438. House of Austria established. Albert II (King of Bohemia and Hungary), Emperor.		1441. Kiptchak Mongols divide Russia.
	1446. War with Hungary.		
			1450. Kingdom of Delhi enlarged
1453. End of the French and English wars.	1453. Austria made an hereditary duchy by emperor Frederick III.	1452. Civil war in Navarre, in which Castile and Aragon join.	1453. Poland's independence confirmed by diet of Petrekin.
		1454. Henry IV of Castile, King of Spain.	1454. Poland at war with the Teutonic order.
			1458. Hungary vigorous under Matthias Corvin.
1461. Louis XI, King.			
	1469. Invasion of the Turks.	1469. Marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon with Isabella of Castile.	1468. Uzun Hassan, master of Persia. 1470. Sten Sture, Regent of Sweden.
1475. War between France and Burgundy.			
1477. Artois and Burgundy united to France.	1477. Marriage of Maximilian and Maria of Burgundy.	1479. Union of Castile and Aragon.	1479. Great invasion of the Tartars.
1491. Bretagne united to the crown.			1481. Power of the Tartars annihilated. John, King of Denmark, partially acknowledged in Sweden. 1485. Matthias of Hungary takes Vienna.

RELIGIOUS WARS A. D. 1492-1648

France	Russia	Scandinavia	Ottoman Empire and Lesser Countries
			1492. America discovered by Columbus.
			1493. War with Egypt, Hungary and Venice.
1499. Conquest of Milan.			1499. Voyage of Amerigo Vespucci.

PERIOD OF REFORMATION AND

Characteristics of the Centuries	Italy and the Church	Great Britain	Germany	Spain and Portugal
1500—1600 A. D. Continued		1509. Henry VIII, King.		
Power of Spain, and her conquests in America.	1511. Council of Pisa.	1512. War with France.	1512. Maximilian divides the empire into 10 circles.	
The monarchy strong in England.	1513. Pope Leo X patron of literature and the arts.	1513. Battle of Flodden; James IV killed.		
		1515. Wolsey, chancellor and cardinal.		
			1517. Beginning of the Reformation.	1516. Charles, King of all Spain and the Netherlands.
			1519. Charles V, King of Spain.	1519. Conquest of Mexico by Cortez.
			1521. Diet of Worms.	
	1525. Spanish ascendency by the victory of Pavia.			
			1529. Turks invade Germany.	
		1532. The King marries Anne Boleyn.		
		1535. Henry excommunicated by the Pope.		
	1540. Order of Jesuits founded by Loyola.			1540. Lisbon the market of the world.
	1545. Council of Trent.	1543. Invasion of France.	1543. Alliance with England against France.	
		1547. Formal establishment of Protestantism. Edward VI, King.		
	1550. Julius III, Pope.		1551. Treaty of Passau secures religious liberty to the Protestants.	
		1553. Mary, Queen of England.		
		1554. Lady Jane Grey executed.		
		1555. Persecution of the Protestants.		
		1558. Elizabeth, Queen. Rise of the Puritans.	1556. Charles V abdicates.	
	1559. Termination of French wars in Italy.			
			1564. Maximilian II Emperor.	1564. Acquisition of the Philippines.
				1567. Duke of Alva, Governor of the Netherlands.
	1569. Florence a grand duchy.	1568. Mary, Queen of Scots takes refuge in England.		
				1571. Battle of Lepanto.
				1580. Portugal passes under Spanish dominion.
		1584. Raleigh's colony in Virginia.		
	1585. Pope Sixtus V restores the Vatican library.	1585. War with Spain.		
		1588. Spanish Armada destroyed.		1588. Defeat of the Spanish Armada.
1600—1700 A. D.	1592. The Rialto and Piazza di San Marco built at Venice.		1594. Union of Protestants at Heilbronn.	
The Thirty Years' war, at first a life struggle of Roman Catholics and Protestants, results in downfall of Spain, and the ascendency of France, which reached its zenith under Louis XIV.	1609. Leghorn becomes the emporium of the Levant trade.	1607. English settlement at Jamestown.	1608. Protestant union under Frederick the Elector.	1609. Expulsion of the Moors.
		1617. Sir Francis Bacon, lord chancellor.		
	1618. Conspiracy of De Bedmar to subject Venice to Spain.		1618. Thirty Years' war begins.	
		1620. Pilgrims sail in Mayflower.	1620. Massacre of Prague.	1621. Dutch war.

RELIGIOUS WARS — Continued

France	Russia	Scandinavia	Ottoman Empire and Lesser Countries
			1506. Poland under Sigismund the Great.
1510. Council of Tours.	1510. Renewed Tartar invasions.		
		1513. Christian II, King of Norway and Denmark.	1512. Selim I dethrones and puts to death his father.
1515. Francis I invades Italy.			1514. Persians defeated; Kurdistan added to the empire. 1516. Cairo taken.
		1520. Christian, King of Sweden.	1520. Soliman the Magnificent, Sultan.
1521. First war with Charles.		1521. Gustavus Vasa, throws off the Danish yoke.	1521. Belgrade taken.
1525. Francis defeated and taken prisoner at Pavia. 1527. Second war with Charles V.		1523. Gustavus Vasa, King of Sweden. Union of Calmar dissolved.	1526. Invasion of Hungary.
			1529. Invasion of Germany. Siege of Vienna.
1532-1544. Struggle for possession of Italy.	1533. Ivan the Terrible, Czar.	1532. Union of Norway and Denmark.	
			1535. Barbarossa seizes Tunis.
		1543. First standing army in Sweden.	
1547. Henry II, King; Catherine de' Medici, Queen.			1547. Turks invade Persia.
1552. Fifth war with Charles V.			1551 Tripoli taken. 1552. Invasion of Hungary.
	1554. Siberia discovered.		
			1556. Akbar raises the Indian empire to its greatest splendor.
1562. Religious liberty granted to the Huguenots. Huguenot wars.		1560. Eric XIV, King of Sweden. War between Sweden and Denmark.	1559. Military power of the Turks at its greatest height under Soliman
		1570. Peace of Stettin.	1570. War with Venice.
1572. Massacre of St. Bartholomew.	1571. Russia devastated by the Tartars, and Moscow burned. 1578. Alliance of Sweden and Poland against Russia.	1578. Alliance with Poland.	1571. Battle of Lepanto.
			1579. Beginning of the Republic of Holland.
1588. Revolt of Paris.		1588. Christian IV, King of Denmark.	1585. Persia acquires great power under Abbas the Great.
1589. House of Bourbon begins with Henry IV. 1590. Siege of Paris raised by the Spaniards.			1589. Revolt of the Janizaries.
			1595. Power in Hungary declines; revolt of Wallachia.
1610. Assassination of Henry IV.		1609. Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden. 1611. War between Sweden and Denmark.	
1614. Last assembly of the states-general.	1613. Michael Fedorovitz, Czar, founds the house of Romanoff. 1617. Finland ceded to Sweden.	1616. Sweden dominates the North.	
			1618. Great Persian victory at Shibi. 1620. War with Poland.

PERIOD OF THE REFORMATION

Characteristics of the Centuries	Italy and the Church	Great Britain	Germany	Spain and Portugal
1600—1700 A. D. Continued The battle of civil and religious liberty fought out in England under the Stuarts. Rise of modern science and philosophy.	1626. St. Peter's dedicated. 1628. War following death of the Duke of Mantua. 1631. Influence of France increases.	1625. Charles I, King. 1627. War with France.	1628. Victories of Wallenstein. 1630. Gustavus Adolphus lands in Germany. 1632. Battle of Lutzen 1640. Frederick William of Prussia.	1625. Naval war with England. 1639. Loss of the Japanese trade. 1640. Portugal regains independence.
	1646. Revolt of Naples under Masaniello.	1642. Civil war and revolution.	1648. Treaty of Westphalia.	

FROM THE PEACE OF WESTPHALIA TO THE

Characteristics of the Centuries	Italy and the Church	Great Britain	Germany	Spain and Portugal
1600 1700 A. D. Continued		1649. Commonwealth under Cromwell. 1652. War with Holland. 1653. Cromwell, Lord Protector.		1654. Brazil recovered from the Dutch. 1655. War with England.
		1660. Charles II, King. Stuarts restored.	1657. Leopold I, emperor.	1661. Invasion of Portugal.
	1669. Candia taken from Venice. 1670. War between Genoa and Savoy.	1668. Triple alliance of England, Sweden and Holland against France.		
	1676. Messina blockaded by the Dutch and Spanish fleets.	1679. Habeas Corpus act passed	1673. War of Austria and France. 1676. General revolt of the Hungarians. 1680. Greater part of Alsace seized by France. 1683. Siege of Vienna by the Turks.	1673. War with France to protect Holland
		1685. James II., King. Rise of the Whigs and Tories.	1686. Buda taken after being held by the Turks 145 years. 1687. Joseph I. King of Hungary.	
	1689. Alexander VIII, Pope.	1688. Revolution. 1689. William III., King, and Mary II., Queen. War with France.		1689. Revolt in Catalonia in favor of France.
	1693. Battle of Marsaglia.	1690. Battle of the Boyne. James defeated, returns to France.	1690. Joseph I elected King of the Romans.	1691. Incursion of the French into Aragon.
1700—1800 A. D. Astounding growth of the British empire.		1697. General peace.	1697. Victories of Prince Eugene over the Sultan Mustapha at Zenta.	
		1701. War of the Spanish succession.	1701. Hague alliance.	1701. Philip V, King.

AND RELIGIOUS WARS—Continued

France	Russia	Scandinavia	Ottoman Empire and Lesser Countries
1624. Ministry of Cardinal Richelieu.			
1627. War with England over the Huguenots.			
	1632. War with Poland. Poles advance to Moscow.	1632. Christina, Queen of Sweden; Oxenstiern, Regent.	1634. Murad invades Persia.
1638. Invasion of Spain.			1639. Great naval victory of Van Tromp, of Holland, over the Spanish fleet at the Downs.
1640. Turin taken by the French.			1640. Madras, India, founded.
1643. Louis XIV, King.			
		1645. Peace between Sweden and Denmark.	1645. War with Venice.
1648. Wars of the Fronde.			

DECLARATION OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE A. D. 1648 - 1776

France	Russia	Scandinavia	Ottoman Empire and Lesser Countries
1649. Siege of Paris.			
1653. Mazarin enters Paris in triumph.	1654. Russian victories in Poland.		1653. John de Witt, Grand Pensionary of Holland.
1659. Peace of the Pyrenees.		1657. War between Denmark and Sweden.	1657. Alliance with Sweden against Poland.
			1661. War with Austria.
1667. War with Spain.			1662. Invasion of Hungary.
1672. War with Holland.	1671. The Cossacks subjugated.		1672. Invasion of Poland.
			1674. Sobieski, King of Poland.
1678. Peace with Holland and Spain restores tranquillity to Europe.			1678. First war with Russia.
1680. France the most formidable power in Europe.	1682. Ivan and Peter, Czars.	1680. Diet of Stockholm.	1682. War with Austria.
			1683. Defeat at Vienna.
1685. Revocation of the edict of Nantes.			1686. Russia declares war.
			1687. Revolution in Constantinople, Solyman II, Sultan.
1688. War of the allies against France.	1689. Peter the Great.		
			1690. Recovery of Belgrade from the Austrians.
	1692. First trade with China.	1693. The King of Sweden declared absolute.	1692. Mogul power at its height in India.
			1695. Brussels bombarded by the French.
1697. General peace of Ryswick between France and the allies.		1699. Charles XII begins to reign. Denmark, Poland, and Russia form an alliance against Sweden.	1699. Peace of Carlowitz. The Ottoman power broken.
	1700. Peter the Great wars with the Northern Powers.	1700. Defeat of the Allies at Narva.	

FROM THE PEACE OF WESTPHALIA TO THE DECLARATION

Characteristics of the Centuries	Italy and the Church	Great Britain	Germany	Spain and Portugal
1700—1800 A. D. Continued	1702. French victory at Luzzara over the Imperialists.	1702. Queen Anne's war against France and Spain.		
Government in England now and henceforth carried on by a Cabinet Ministry more or less representing the will of the people.	1706. French driven from Italy by Prince Eugene.	1704. Gibraltar taken by English.		1705. Barcelona taken by the Allies.
	1707. All Spanish possessions in Italy abandoned.	1707. Act of union of England and Scotland. First united parliament of Great Britain meets.		
Development of manufactures in England. Inventions and discoveries. Immense advance in arts and sciences.		1713. Peace of Utrecht. England acquires large American possessions.	1711. Charles VI, emperor.	
	1715. Siege of Corfu raised.			
Independence of the United States.	1719. Sicily invaded by the Spanish.	1718. War with Spain.	1718. Quadruple alliance against Spain.	
Gross misgovernment of Roman Catholic Ireland by an English Protestant minority.		1727. George II, King of England.		
	1730. Clement XII, Pope.		1733. War of the Polish succession.	1734. Conquest of Sicily and Naples by Don Carlos.
The French revolution which powerfully influenced social, political, and intellectual progress for the next hundred years.		1739. War with Spain.	1740. War of the Austrian succession. Maria Theresa succeeds to the hereditary states.	
	1744. Italy invaded by the French and Spaniards.			
	1746. French and Spaniards driven from Lombardy.	1745. Troubles in Scotland.	1745. Francis I, husband of Maria Theresa, Emperor.	1746. Ferdinand VI, King.
		1756. Alliance with Prussia.	1756. Seven years' war—Austria and Prussia.	
		1762. War with Spain.		
		1763. Peace of Paris.		
	1773. Jesuits expelled from Rome.		1772. Dismemberment of Poland.	
		1775. War with the American Colonies.		
		1776. British army takes possession of New York. Declaration of American Independence.		

FROM DECLARATION OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE

Characteristics of the Centuries	Italy and the Church	Great Britain	Germany	United States
1700—1800 A. D. Continued				1775-1781. War of the Revolution.
			1778. War of the Bavarian succession. Bavaria seized by Germany.	
	1782. Pontine marshes drained.	1781. Surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown.		
		1783. Treaty of Versailles. Independence of the United States acknowledged.	1788. The emperor tries to control the universities.	1783. Treaty of peace signed with Great Britain. Eighth Continental Congress meets at Princeton, N. J.
				1789. George Washington, President.

OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE, A. D. 1648-1776 — Continued

France	Russia	Scandinavia	Ottoman Empire and Lesser Countries
1702. Invasion of Holland. Revolt of the Huguenots.		1702-1706. Charles XII sweeps Poland and Russia.	
1704. Defeat at Blenheim.	1703. St. Petersburg founded.		1703. Mustapha II deposed by the Janizaries.
			1704. Stanislaus I, King of Poland.
	1707. Revolt of the Cossack Mazeppa.		
	1708. Charles XII of Sweden invades Russia.		
	1709. Is defeated at Pultowa.		
1713. Peace of Utrecht—perpetual separation of the crown of France and Spain.	1714. Finland conquered.		
1715. Death of Louis XIV; Louis XV, King.		1715. Charles returns to Sweden.	1715. Treaty of Antwerp with Austria.
			1717. Turks lose Belgrade
1718. The Quadruple alliance against Spain.		1718. Charles XII invades Norway and is killed at the siege of Frederickshall.	
		1720. Peace of Stockholm.	
	1721. Peter assumes the title "Emperor of all the Russians."		1723. Turks and Russians attempt to dismember Persia.
	1727. Treaty with China.		
1733. The Polish succession involves France in war.	1730. Peter II, last of the Romanoffs.	1730. Christian VI, King of Denmark.	
			1734. Turks driven from Persia by Nâdir Shah.
1740. The Austrian succession.			1740. Renewed invasion of Turkey.
1744. War with England and Austria.		1741. Swedes driven out of Finland.	1744. Hostilities between the French and English in India.
1747. War with Holland.			1745. Defeat of Turks at Kars.
1760. Loss of all Canada.			1756. Calcutta taken by the Nabob of Bengal.
	1762. Catherine II reigns.		
			1765. Establishment of the English in India
1770. Marriage of the dauphin to Marie Antoinette.		1772. Despotism re established in Sweden by Gustavus III.	
1774. Louis XVI, King.	1774. Revolt of the Cossacks.		1774. Warren Hastings first governor-general of India.
1776. Franklin in Paris.			1776. Lord Pigot governor-general of the East Indies.

TO THE FALL OF NAPOLEON, 1776-1815

France	Russia	Scandinavia	Ottoman Empire and Lesser Countries
1778. Alliance with America.			
1780. Rochambeau sent to aid the Americans.			
	1787. War with the Turks.		1787. Disastrous war with Austria and Russia.
1789. French revolution begins. Lafayette commander of the national guards.			

FROM AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE TO

Characteristics of the Centuries	Italy and the Church	Great Britain	Germany	United States
1700—1800 A. D. Continued			1792. War with France.	
		1793. First coalition against France directed by England.	1793. First coalition against France.	1794. Foundations of United States Navy authorized.
	1796-1797. Napoleon's Italian campaign.	1797. Nelson destroys French fleet near Alexandria.	1797. Napoleon's Austrian campaign.	1797. John Adams, President.
	1798. Roman republic proclaimed by the French.	1798. Second coalition against France.		
1800—1900 A. D.		1800. Union of England and Ireland.		1800. Capital removed from Philadelphia to Washington.
Napoleon's colossal power and downfall.	1802. Napoleon, President of the Italian Republic.	1803. Successful war in India.		1801. Thomas Jefferson, President. 1803. Louisiana purchased for $15,000,000.
Fall of despotisms; great political advance of European people.	1805. Napoleon crowned King of Italy.	1805. Napoleon defeated at Trafalgar.	1804. The emperor of Germany assumes the title of emperor of Austria. Battle of Austerlitz. Confederation of the Rhine.	
Continued rapid advancement of science, inventions and discoveries.	1808. Rome annexed by Napoleon to the kingdom of Italy.	1806. Fourth coalition against France.		
Increased philanthropic effort and intellectual enlightenment.			1809. Peace of Vienna.	
Rise and development of the German Empire.		1812. War with the United States.	1812. Austria in alliance with France against Russia. 1813. War of German independence.	1812. War declared against Great Britain.
	1814. Fall of Napoleon. Kingdom ceases.	1815. British defeated at New Orleans. Wellington victorious at Waterloo. The Allies enter Paris, and Napoleon is banished to St. Helena.	1815. German League. Congress at Vienna.	1815. Jackson defeats the British at New Orleans. Treaty of Peace with Great Britain ratified.

FROM THE FALL OF NAPOLEON TO THE

Characteristics of the Centuries	United States	Great Britain	Germany
1800—1900 A. D. Continued	1816. U. S. Bank incorporated. 1817. James Monroe, President.	1816. Bombardment of Algiers. The Bey compelled to abolish slavery.	
			1818. The Zollverein formed.
			1819. Death of Marshal Blucher.
	1821. Monroe re-elected. Missouri compromise bill passed.		1821. Congress of monarchs at Laybach. Insurrection in Moldavia and Wallachia.
		1823. The Canning ministry.	
	1825. Erie Canal opened.		
	1829. Andrew Jackson, President.	1828. Wellington ministry. Irish disturbances.	
	1831. Northeastern boundary between the U. S. and British provinces established.		1831. Austria interferes in Italian affairs.

THE FALL OF NAPOLEON — Continued

France	Russia	Scandinavia	Ottoman Empire and Lesser Countries
1792. War with Germany. France declared a republic.		1792. Gustavus III assassinated. Gustavus IV, King.	
1793. King and Queen beheaded. Reign of Terror.			
1795. Napoleon Bonaparte commands the army.			
1796. War in Italy.	1796. Unsuccessful war with Persia.		
1797. Napoleon in Austria.			1797. Swiss revolution. Helvetian republic declared.
1798. Expedition to Egypt.			1798. War with the French in Egypt.
1799. Swiss campaign.			
1800. Battle of Marengo.			
	1801. Alexander, Czar.	1801. Denmark and Sweden accede to the alliance between England and Russia.	
1802. Napoleon, President of the Italian republic. War with England.			1803. Insurrection of Mamelukes at Cairo.
1804. Napoleon I, Emperor of the French.	1804. War with Persia.		
1805. Battle of Austerlitz.	1805. Russia joins the coalition against France.		
			1806. Louis Napoleon, King of Holland.
1807. War with Russia. Invasion of Portugal.	1807. Treaty of Tilsit.		1807. War against Russia and England.
		1808. Finland invaded by the Russians.	
1809. Battle of Wagram.		1809. Charles XIII, King of Sweden.	1809. Russians defeated at Silistria.
1810. Continental peace except with Spain.			
1812. Russian campaign.	1812. Invasion of Napoleon. Moscow burned.		1812. The Poles declared a nation by Napoleon. Diet of Warsaw.
			1813. Servia invaded by Turkish army.
1814. Allies enter Paris. House of Bourbon restored.		1814. Union of Sweden and Norway as two kingdoms under one monarch.	1814. Malta falls to England.
1815. Napoleon returns from Elba. Hundred days' war. Battle of Waterloo, and defeat of Napoleon. Abdication of Napoleon.	1815. The Holy Alliance formed.		1815. William I, King of the Netherlands.

FOUNDING OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE — 1815-1871

France	Spain and Portugal	Italy and Greece	Russia and Lesser Countries
	1815. Union of Portugal and Brazil under John VI.	1815. Kingdom of Two Sicilies restored.	1815. Poland united to Russia.
	1817. Slave trade abolished.		1817. The Mahratta power completely overthrown in India by the British.
1818. France joins in Holy Alliance.			1819. Bolivar, President of Colombia, South America.
1821. Death of Napoleon at St. Helena.		1821. Austrian invasion of Italy.	
		1822. Greek revolution. Declaration of Independence.	
		1825. Death of Ferdinand, after reign of sixty-six years.	
			1826. Nicholas I crowned at Moscow. War against Persia.
		1827. Treaty between Russia and Turkey respecting Greece.	
1830. Revolution and abdication of Charles X. Louis Phillippe, King.	1830. Salic law abolished.		1830. War against Poland.
1831. Abolition of hereditary peerage in France.			1831. Leopold I, King of the Belgians.

FROM THE FALL OF NAPOLEON TO THE

Characteristics of the Centuries	United States	Great Britain	Prussia aud Austria
1800—1900 A. D. Continued	1833. President Jackson re-elected.		
	1837. Independence of Texas acknowledged. Martin Van Buren, President.	1837. Victoria, Queen.	1838. Commercial treaty with England.
	1841. W. H. Harrison, President. Death of Harrison, and succession of John Tyler.	1841. Chinese war ended.	
	1845. Texas annexed to the U. S. James K. Polk, President.		
	1846. War with Mexico.	1846. Repeal of the English corn-laws.	1847. Austria takes possession of Cracow.
	1848. Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, ends Mexican war.	1848. Civil war in Ireland. Habeas Corpus Act suspended.	1848. Revolution in Hungary. Francis Joseph, Emperor. Kossuth withdraws his army from Vienna.
	1849. Zachary Taylor, President.	1849. Mooltan in India taken.	1849. The King declines the Imperial crown.
	1850. Attempted invasion of Cuba by filibusters. Death of President Taylor; Millard Fillmore, President. Texas boundary settled. Fugitive Slave Law passed.	1850. The war in Lahore ended. The Punjab annexed to the British Crown. Death of Sir Robert Peel. English forces defeated in South Africa by the Kafirs.	1850. Hanover withdraws from the Prussian alliance. Hesse - Darmstadt withdraws. Treaty of peace with Denmark. New constitution for Prussia.
	1853. Franklin Pierce, President. Gadsden Purchase.	1853. Kafir war ended. Queen Victoria visits Ireland.	1853. Plot to overthrow the government.
	1854. Treaty with Japan. Kansas-Nebraska bill passed.	1854. Crimean war. Treaty of alliance with France.	1854. Treaty with Austria offensive and defensive.
	1857. Dred Scott decision. James Buchanan, President. Great financial panic.	1857. Rebellion in India begins. King of Delhi proclaimed Sovereign of India.	1856. Hungarians granted amnesty.
		1858. Completion of the Atlantic telegraph cable.	
American Civil War. 1860 - 1865	1859. John Brown captures Harpers Ferry.	1860. Rebellion in India subdued. Neutrality proclaimed during the American Civil war.	1859. War with France and Sardinia. Austrians defeated at Montebello. Peace after Battle of Solferino.
	1861. Secession of Southern States, and establishment of the Confederate States under Jefferson Davis. Opening of the Civil war, 1861-1865. Abraham Lincoln, President.		1861. William I King of Prussia. New constitution for the Austrian monarchy.
			1862. Bismarck, Premier of Prussia. Amnesty to political offenders in Hungary.
			1864. War with Denmark.
	1865. Assassination of President Lincoln; Andrew Johnson, President.	1865. Fenian outbreaks in Ireland. British and French governments rescind their recognition of the Confederate States of America.	
	1866. Civil rights bill passed. Atlantic telegraph completed.		1866. Prussia prepares for war with Austria. Battle of Sadowa. Hanover annexed. First parliament of the German Confederation.
	1867. General amnesty proclamation.		1867. Autonomy for Hungary announced. Emperor crowned King of Hungary.
	1868. Burlingame treaty with China.		
	1869. U. S. Grant, President. Union Pacific railway opened for traffic.	1870. Irish Land Act passed.	1870. War with France. Battle of Sedan.

FOUNDING OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE — Continued

France	Spain and Portugal	Italy and Greece	Russia and Lesser Countries
		1832. Kingdom of Greece founded.	1832. Poland made part of empire.
	1833. Isabella II, Queen of Spain.		1833. Santa Anna, President of Mexico.
1838. Death of Talleyrand.	1837. The monasteries in Spain dissolved.		
			1839. Turkey at war with Egypt.
	1842. Insurrection in Barcelona.		1842. Insurrection in India.
1844. War with Morocco.		1843. King Otho of Greece compelled to accept a constitution.	
	1846. Civil war in Portugal.		
			1847. Soulouque, President of Hayti.
1848. Abdication of Louis Philippe, and a republic proclaimed. Louis Napoleon, President. Bloody insurrection in Paris.		1848. Rising of the great Italian cities in revolution. Italian revolution. Roman republic overthrown.	1848. Holland receives a constitution. Insurrection in Ceylon. Hungary declared independent.
		1849. Victor Emanuel, King. Rome surrenders to the French; Garibaldi leaves city. Bourbon rule begins.	1849. Aids Austria in subduing Hungary.
1850. Jerome Bonaparte, Field-Marshal.			1850. Harbor of Sebastopol completed.
			1853. War declared against Turkey. Turkish-Russian War.
1854. War declared against Russia.	1854. Military insurrection under O'Donnell.		1854. War with France and England. Siege of Sebastopol. Battle of Balaklava.
1856. Peace with Russia.			1856. Destruction of Sebastopol docks. Evacuation of Crimea.
			1858. Massacre of Christians in Turkey.
1859. War with Austria.	1859. War with Morocco.	1859. War with Austria.	
1860. Commercial treaty with England.	1860. Defeat of the Moors.	1860. Garibaldi lands in Sicily, and assumes dictatorship. Sicily and Naples liberated.	
	1861. Annexation of Santo Domingo. Intervention in Mexico.	1861. Victor Emmanuel II, King of Sardinia, first King of Italy.	1861. Canton restored to the Chinese by the French and English.
1862. Great distress caused by American Civil war.		1862. Garibaldi establishes a provisional government. Insurrection in Greece.	1862. Nesselrode, Chancellor.
			1863. Termination of serfdom.
1864. Maximilian accepts Mexican crown.	1864. Rupture with Peru.	1864. Florence made the capital of Italy.	1864. Nanking, China, taken by Gordon for the Imperialists.
1865. Death of Proudhon.	1865. Dispute with Chile.	1865. Ionian Isles made over to Greece.	
	1866. Military insurrection headed by General Prim.	1866. Austrian war, Venetia proclaimed a part of Italy.	1866. Inauguration of trial by jury. War with Bokhara.
1867. Great exposition in Paris.	1867. Death of Marshal O'Donnell.	1867. Garibaldi and the Papal states.	1867. Russian America sold to the United States. Egypt declared by the Sultan to be a separate sovereignty. Execution of Maximilian in Mexico.
	1868. Queen deposed.		
1869. New constitution promulgated.		1869. Vatican Council opened at Rome.	
1870. War declared against Prussia. Battle of Sedan. Surrender of Metz.	1870. Isabella II, abdicates; Amadeus, King.	1870. Rome is annexed to Italy. Declared the capital of Italy.	1870. Fenian raid in Canada.

FROM THE FOUNDING OF THE GERMAN

Characteristics of the Centuries	United States	Great Britain	Germany	Austria
1800—1900 A. D. Continued			1871. William I, Emperor.	1871. New German empire recognized.
	1877. R. B. Hayes, President.	1876. Queen Victoria proclaimed Empress of India.	1877. Attempted assassination of emperor.	1878. Occupation of Bosnia.
	1881. James A. Garfield, President, assassinated, July 2d; Chester A. Arthur, President. 1885. Grover Cleveland, President.	1882. Attempt on life of Queen Victoria.		1882 600th anniversary of the House of Hapsburg.
		1887. Queen's Jubilee.	1888. Accession and death of Frederick III William II, Emperor.	1886. Army put on war footing of 1,500,000 men.
	1889. Benjamin Harrison, President.	1889. Great labor strikes.		
	1890. McKinley tariff bill passed.	1890. Stanley returns from Africa.	1890. Resignation of Bismarck as chancellor.	
	1893. Grover Cleveland, President. Chinese exclusion bill approved. World's Columbian exposition at Chicago.	1893. Bering Sea arbitration. 1894. Manchester ship canal opened.	1893. Anti-Jesuit law repealed. 1894. Commercial treaty with Russia. New parliament house opened. 1896. New civil code for the empire completed.	1894. Commercial treaty with Russia ratified. 1896. Archduke Karl Ludwig, heir to the throne, dies.
	1897. William McKinley, President.	1897. Blackwell tunnel opened.		
	1898. Destruction of the *Maine* at Havana. War with Spain. Hawaii annexed. 1899. Cuba is relinquished by Spain. Philippines and Porto Rico acquired.	1898. Death of Gladstone. Irish local government bill passed. 1899. The Boer war in South Africa.	1898. Death of Bismarck.	1898. Assassination of the Empress by an anarchist at Geneva.
1900—1915 A. D. Japan becomes a world power. Constitutional and representative government is extended in many parts of the world—notably in Russia, Persia, Turkey, China and Portugal. Renewed impulse given to international peace and arbitration. Great commercial expansion in Germany, France, Japan, Great Britain and the United States. Unprecedented power of the public press.	1900. Civil government established in the Philippines.	1900. Field-Marshal Roberts takes command in South Africa.	1900. Abolition of the Roman law throughout Germany.	1900. Marriage of the heir apparent, Francis Ferdinand.
	1901. Assassination of President McKinley by the anarchist Czolgosz.	1901. Census of the Indian empire taken. Death of Queen Victoria and accession of Edward VII.	1901. Bicentenary of the coronation of the first king of Prussia.	
	1902. Cuban independence under Platt amendment. 1903. Panama canal treaty signed with Colombia. Independence of Panama recognized.	1902. The British-Japanese alliance signed. Boer war ended. 1903. King Edward visits the King of Italy. Irish land bill passed the House of Parliament.	1902. Prince Henry of Prussia visits the United States.	1902. Triple Alliance renewed. 1903. New tariff bill. Visit of the Czar of Russia.
	1906. Riot at Brownsville, Texas. The President visited Panama.	1906. King Edward visits Paris.	1906. Propaganda against Socialism.	1906. Prince Schillingfurst succeeds Baron Gautch.
	1907. Philippine assembly opened.	1907. King Edward and Emperor Francis Joseph meet at Ischl.	1907. German emperor visited London.	1907. Universal suffrage bill passed.
	1909. Tariff revised. 1910. Elections result in great Democratic gains.	1910. Death of King Edward VII. Accession of George V.	1910. Emperor William received Ex-President Roosevelt.	1909. Bosnia and Herzegovina acquired.
	1911. Extra session of Congress called by President Taft. Canadian reciprocity bill passed.	1911. King George formally opens the British Parliament.	1911. The Emperor urged a policy of reclamation.	1911. Austria strengthens her army and navy.

EMPIRE TO THE WORLD WAR, 1871–1914

France	Spain and Portugal	Italy and Greece	Russia and Lesser Countries
1871. Capitulation of Paris. Peace ratified.	1871. Sagasta, Prime Minister.		1871. Electric telegraph between Russia and Japan. Military revolt in City of Mexico suppressed.
	1875. Civil war.		1872. Attempt to assassinate the Mikado of Japan.
			1877. War against Turkey.
1879. Jules Grevy, President.		1878. Death of Victor Emmanuel II Humbert, King.	1878. Montenegro, Servia and Roumania independent.
		1882. Death of Garibaldi.	1881. Alexander II assassinated. Alexander III, Emperor.
	1883. Sagasta again Minister.		
		1885. War with Abyssinia.	1885. Ship canal from St. Petersburg to Cronstadt opened.
			1886. Russia interferes in Bulgaria.
1887. Sadi-Carnot, President.		1887. Alliance of Italy with Austria-Hungary and Germany signed. Crispi, Prime Minister.	1888. Central Asian railway opened.
	1889. Trial by jury first put in force.		1889. New constitution promulgated in Japan.
1890. War with Dahomey.	1890. Castillo, Premier.		1890. First Japanese Parliament opened.
		1891. Treaty of Italy with Great Britain relative to East Africa.	
1894. President Carnot assassinated at Lyons. M. Casimir-Ferier, President.			1894. Death of Alexander III. Nicholas II, Czar. War between China and Japan.
		1896. (Italy) Peace with Abyssinia.	1896. Jameson raid in South Africa.
1897. Ten-hour law for railway employees passed.	1897. Assassination of Premier Canovas del Castillo.		1897. Turko-Grecian war.
	1898. Spanish-American war. Treaty of Paris.	1898. Pope offers to mediate in the Cuban question.	1898. Port Arthur leased from China. Wilhelmina, Queen of Holland.
	1899. Death of Premier Canovas of Spain.		1899. Venezuela-Guiana boundary line established.
		1900. Assassination of King Humbert of Italy, Victor Emmanuel III, King.	1900. Outbreak of the Boxers in China.
1901. Diplomatic relations with Turkey suspended.			1901. Submission of China to the allied powers.
1902. M. Combes forms a new French ministry.	1902. Alfonzo XIII King.		
1903. President Loubet visits King Edward.		1903. Death of Pope Leo XIII. Pope Pius X.	1903. Peter I., King of Servia.
			1904-1905. Russo-Japanese War over Manchuria. Fall of Port Arthur, and end of war.
1906. M. Falliéres, President.	1906. King Alfonso married to Princess Victoria of England.	1906. Sonino, Premier. International exhibition at Milan.	1906. The Czar opened the first Russian Duma. Norway and Sweden independent kingdoms.
1907. Wine growers, agitation. French occupation of Morocco.	1907. King and Queen visit England.	1907. Italy signs arbitration treaty with Argentina.	1907. Abdication of Korean emperor. Death of Oscar II of Sweden.
1910. Briand cabinet resigned.	1910. Spain recalled its envoy to the vatican. Portugal becomes a republic.	1910. Decree issued by the King of Greece for a revision of the constitution.	1910. Montenegro became a kingdom with Nicholas as king. Revolutionary outbreaks in Mexico. Japan annexed Korea.
1911. New ministry formed by Premier.	1911. Further creation of religious orders prohibited.	1911. Second parliament assembles. 1911-1912. War with Turkey over Tripoli.	1911. Insurrections in Mexico. President Diaz forced to resign. Madero elected President.

FROM THE FOUNDING OF THE GERMAN

Characteristics of the Centuries	United States	Great Britain	Germany	Austria and Hungary
1900-1915 A. D. Continued Era of educational and social philanthropies. Decline in creative literature. Development of African resources.	1912. Tariff revision begun by Congress. 1913. Democratic Party comes into power. Parcels Post System inaugurated. Woodrow Wilson inaugurated President. Underwood Tariff bill becomes law. Currency bill passed.	1912. King George returns from Durbar in India. 1913. Colonies aid policy of Naval Expansion.	1912. Large Socialist gains in German Diet. 1913. Declares support of Triple Alliance.	1912. Death of Premier Aerenthal in Austr a. 1913. Mobilize Army on Servian Frontier to conserve interests of Empire pending Balkan war.

FROM THE WORLD WAR TO

Characteristics of the Centuries	United States	Great Britain	Germany	Austria and Hungary
World War rages with leading nations of the world involved. League of Nations formed. Difficult economic conditions prevail throughout Europe.	1914. Anti-trust legislation begun in Congress. Declares neutrality in the European War. New regional banking system goes into operation.	1914. King George urges mutual concessions in Irish Home Rule controversy. Wages war on the Teutonic Alliance as a member of Triple Entente.	1914. Germany's new fiscal policy lays a tax on royalty. Declares war on the Triple Entente.	1914. Austria adopts a strong policy against Balkan expansion. Joins Germany in a declaration of war on the Triple Entente.
	1915. Pan-American conference at Washington. Naval advisory board formed. U. S. trade commission.	1915. New coalition ministry. Battles of Ypres, Loos, and campaign at Dardanelles. War with Bulgaria.	1915. War with Italy. Issues iron money.	1915. Italy declares war on Austria.
	1916. Punitive expedition into Mexico. Workmen's compensation act.	1916. Conscription bill. Lloyd George, prime minister. Formation of the War Council.	1916. Loses siege of Verdun. Rumania conquered.	1916. Death of Emperor Francis Joseph and accession of Charles I.
	1917. Break diplomatic relations with Germany. War declared against Germany. Selective conscription bill passed. Federal control of railways.	1917. Large gains on French front. Success in Mesopotamia. Allenby takes Jerusalem.	1917. Resignation of Bethman - Hollweg and accession of Michaelis as chancellor, followed by Von Hertling. Strikes at Krupp plant.	1917. Repels Italian army at Piave, encountering heavy losses. Internal dissension.
	1918. United States fuel administration. War Finance Corporation bill. Two million troops sent overseas.	1918. Haig wins on the Somme and breaks Hindenburg line. Surrender of German fleet to Admiral Beatty.	1918. Defeat of General Ludendorf's army. Signs armistice. Abdication of William II. Occupational army on the Rhine.	1918. Defeat of Austrian army and truce with Italy made. Abdication of Charles I. Austria proclaimed a republic. Separation of Czecho - Slovakia into republic.
	1919. President Wilson heads delegation to peace conference. Prohibition amendment made law.	1919. Lloyd George heads peace delegation at conference. Election of Lady Astor to Parliament.	1919. New constitution and Ebert president. Sign peace treaty.	1919. Invasion of Hungary by Rumania.
	1920. Return railways to private control. Woman suffrage amendment made law.	1920. Sinn Fein movement in Ireland. Accepts mandate for Palestine.	1920. Monarchist failure.	1920. Desperate food situation and general economic breakdown.
	1921. Trouble in West Virginia coal fields. Income tax revised. New mmigration restrictions.	1921. Trouble in India. Approve Irish Free State Treaty.	1921. Ratify treaty with United States. Delay on reparations payments.	1921. Internal situation becomes worse.

EMPIRE TO THE WORLD WAR—Continued

France	Spain and Portugal	Italy and Greece	Russia and Lesser Countries
1912. Poincare as premier cements friendship with Great Britain and Russia.		1912. Greece joins Balkan Allies in war against Turkey.	1912. China a republic; Yuan, President. Death of Mutsuhito; Yoshihito becomes Mikado of Japan. Balkan States (Bulgaria, Servia, Montenegro) join Greece in war with Turkey.
1913. Raymond Poincare inaugurated President.	1913. Continued strife between Royalists and Republicans. Attempted assassination of King Alfonso.	1913. Assassination of King George of Greece.	1913. Armistice declared and representatives of warring states meet in London. Balkans capture Adrianople and Turkey sues for peace. Montenegrins capture Scutari. Peace treaty signed.

THE PRESENT TIME, 1914— ———

France	Spain and Portugal	Italy and Greece	Russia, Japan and Lesser Countries
1914. A new political party is formed known as the Briandist. Joins Great Britain and Russia in war upon Teutonic Alliance.	1914. Portuguese cabinet resigns, Bernardino Machado Premier Portugal supports the Triple Entente.	1914. Greece retains the Aegean islands wrested from Turkey. Italy refuses to declare war on Triple Entente, and, together with Greece, declares neutrality in European war.	Russia, as a member of the Triple Entente joins in war on the Teutonic Alliance. Turkey enters the war in behalf of the Teutonic alliance.
1915. Heavy fighting against Germany.	1915. Portuguese revolution. Resignation of Spanish cabinet.	1915. Italy fighting Austria, Germany, Bulgaria and Turkey.	1915. Russia at war with Bulgaria. Chinese changes and new constitution. Japan takes Kiaochow.
1916. Wins siege of Verdun. Battle of the Somme. Neville in charge of French forces.	1916. Germany at war with Portugal.	1916. Italian troops fighting in Balkans. Provisional Greek government formed.	1916. Russian gains in Turkey. 800,000 Armenians killed in massacres.
1917. Clemenceau made premier. Joffre goes to United States. Battle of Chemin des Dames. War Council of Allies meets in Paris.	1917. Martial law in Spain, and government changes. Portuguese troops in Africa.	1917. Italian losses in the Trentino. Italy's rejection of Pope's peace proposal. Venizelos, premier of Greece.	1917. Czar of Russia abdicates; Kerensky, premier; growth of Bolsheviki. Many South American nations declare war or sever relations with Germany. China declares war on Germany.
1918. Foch in charge of all allied forces. Arrival of American army. Overthrow of German forces.	1918. Portuguese army assisting French on Franco - Belgian front. President Paez, of Portugal assassinated.	1918. Italians under Diaz decisively defeat Austria.	1918. Russian Bolsheviki make peace with Germany. Japan sends troops into Siberia. Turkey surrenders to England.
1919. Clemenceau heads International Peace Conference at Versailles.	1919. Monarchist activities in Portugal. Spain active in South American trade.	1919. Orlando heads Italian peace delegation. Seizure of Fiume by D'Annunzio, Italian patriot and writer.	1919. Internal troubles in Russia. Paderewski forms provisional Polish government.
1920. Clemenceau retires. Deschanel, president. Resigns. Millerand, president.	1920. New Spanish cabinet formed.	1920. Constantine in power again in Greece.	1920. Increase in strength of Bolsheviki.
1921. Briand, premier. Foch and others visit United States.	1921. Governmental difficulties in Portugal.	1921. Fascisti formed in Italy. Greeks at war with Turks.	1921. Soviet republic of Armenia formed. Formation of an alliance between Czechoslovakia and Jugo-slavia.

FROM THE WORLD WAR TO

Characteristics of the Centuries	United States	Great Britain	Germany	Austria and Hungary
Disarmament makes progress. Political unrest and rapid changes in ministries in many countries.	1922. Disarmament conference at Washington ends. National agricultural and unemployment conferences. Herrin mine disaster. Destruction of the dirigible Roma.	1922. British troops leave Irish Free State. Bonar Law premier.	1922. Foreign minister Rathenau assassinated. Continuation of reparations discussion. Rapid depreciation of the mark. Rise of royalist party in Bavaria.	1922. League of Nations arranges financial aid for rehabilitation of Austria. Reactionary policies rule in Hungary. The lawless leader Hejjas is active.
	1923. U. S. troops leave Germany. First American R. R. centennial. U. S. protests against Soviet executions. Death of President Harding. Settlement of anthracite coal strike.	1923. Stanley Baldwin made premier. Scrapping of warships begins.	1923. Passive resistance to Ruhr occupation. Wirth ministry gives way to Streseman. Rapid changes in ministry at close of year.	1923. Improved economic conditions in Austria.
	1924. Teapot Dome oil scandal. Tax reduction prominent subject. Death of Woodrow Wilson. Japanese immigrants barred. Round-the-World airplane flight.	1924. Gains of Labor party and Ramsay MacDonald made premier. Conservatives win elections and Stanley Baldwin becomes premier.	1924. "Gold" money basis. Severe economic conditions. Death of Hugo Stinnes. Reichstag accepts Dawes report.	1924. Recognition of Russia. Austrian cabinet resigns. Financial panic and riots in Hungary.
	1925. President advocates economy program. Increase in postal pay and rates. Death of LaFollette. Airship "Shenandoah" disaster.	1925. Resumption of gold standard. Continued unemployment of over a million men. Signs Locarno security treaty.	1925. Death of Pres. Ebert. Election of Hindenburg as president. Signs Locarno treaty.	1925. France agrees to admit 10,000 Austrian workers yearly.
	1926. Tax reduction. Settlement of anthracite strike. Hurricane sweeps east coast of Florida. Intervention in Nicaragua.	1926. Widows, orphans, and old age contributory pensions act goes into effect. Coal strike, followed by general strike. British dominions declared autonomous.	1926. Heavy flood damage. Germany admitted to League of Nations.	1926. Heavy flood damage.
	1927. Difficulties with Mexico. President vetoes McNary-Haugen farm relief bill. Lindbergh flies across Atlantic. Mississippi River floods.	1927. Duke of York goes to Australia for dedication of federal capital at Canberra. Clash in China. Discontinues diplomatic relations with Russia.	1927. Substantial increases in tax revenues. Signs commercial treaty with Japan.	1927. Hungarian-Italian conference. International Air Traffic Association meets in Vienna. Austria protests to Italy in controversy over South Tyrol.

THE PRESENT TIME—Continued

France	Spain and Portugal	Italy and Greece	Russia and Minor Countries	The Orient
1922. Briand resigns and Poincare becomes premier. Bouillon mission to Turkey. Clemenceau visits U. S.	1922. Economic unrest prevalent in both countries.	1922. Italian premier, Bonomi, resigns and Facta succeeds him. Fascisti active. Mussolini becomes premier. Greeks defeated in Asia Minor. Greek king, Constantine, overthrown and George made king.	1922. Fourteen republics of Russia formed into the United Soviets of the World. Russians participate in Genoa conference. Disaffection among Croats in Jugo-Slavia, followed by abandonment of isolation policy.	1922. Ministerial crisis and reorganization under Admiral Kato, pledging execution of the Washington agreement. Reduction in size of Japanese army and the evacuation of Siberia.
1923. Occupies Ruhr region. Strong militaristic policy in effect under Poincare.	1923. Spanish military directorate under General Rivera, premier.	1923. Corfu bombarded and seized by Italy for killing members of Italian mission in Greece. Abdication of Greek king, George.	1923. Execution in Russia of Archbishop Benjamin and of Vicar - general Butchkavitch.	1923. Japan scraps number of warships. Earthquake in Tokio and other places in Japan.
1924. Signs treaty with Czechoslovakia. Premier Poincare defeated. Herriot becomes premier. Resignation of Pres. Millerand and election of Doumergue. Evacuation of the Ruhr.	1924. Spanish troops at Barcelona revolt.	1924. Italian alliance with Spain. Italy annexes Fiume. Greece becomes a republic.	1924. Death of Premier Lenin in Russia. Calles elected president of Mexico. Trotsky in Russia ordered to the Caucasus.	1924. Rebuilding, following the great Japanese earthquake. Thrift measures prominent in Japan. Release of Gandhi in India. Civil war in China.
1925. Painleve becomes premier. War with Riffians in Morocco. Signs Locarno treaty. Completely evacuates the Ruhr.	1925. Riffians defeat Spanish in Morocco. Portuguese Congress refuses to accept resignation of Pres. Gomez.	1925. Numerous political disturbances in Italy. General railroad strike in Greece. Italy signs Locarno treaty. League of Nations settles Greco-Bulgarian dispute.	1925. Attempted assassination of King Boris of Bulgaria and rioting and bloodshed. In Russia Rykov stresses socialism rather than communism. Trotsky returns from Caucasus and is elected to Russian Soviet Cabinet. Amundsen, of Norway, makes airplane flight to north polar region. Mosul controversy settled by League of Nations. Tacna-Arica plebiscite arranged for.	1925. Hebrew University dedicated at Jerusalem. Russo-Japanese treaty. Death of Sun Yat-Sen in China. Death of Rama VI, King of Siam. Chinese anti-tariff riots at Peking.
1926. Continued efforts to stabilize the franc. Abd-el-Krim, Riffian leader surrenders, and Moroccan war ends.	1926. Spanish trans-Atlantic airplane flight. Bloodless revolution in Portugal. Spanish plebiscite upholds Rivera.	1926. Mussolini of Italy antagonistic to German minorities in Tyrol. Greece and Yugoslavia sign a friendship treaty.	1926. Death of Mercier of Belgium. Pilsudski seizes power in Poland. Conflict of Church and State in Mexico.	1926. Kato, Japanese premier, dies. Manchuria declared a republic. Tense situation between China and England. Death of Japanese emperor.
1927. Government reform planned. International Chamber of Commerce meets in Paris.	1927. Violent revolution in Portugal, with a thousand casualties.	1927. Facists concentrate power in Italy.	1927. English made official language in Russia; compulsory military training extended to secondary schools. Death of King Ferdinand of Rumania.	1927. Anti-foreign uprising in China. Japanese earthquake.

FROM THE WORLD WAR TO

Characteristics of the Centuries	United States	Great Britain	Germany	France
Increasing tendencies toward the renunciation of war, as indicated by the Kellogg anti-war pact.	1928. Lindbergh's good will flight to Spanish-American countries. Arbitration treaties with France, Germany and Denmark. Charles E. Hughes nominated for seat on World Court. Republicans nominate Hoover for President; Democrats nominate Smith. Hoover elected President. Byrd Antarctic Expedition starts and reaches Ross Ice Barrier Dec. 25.	1928. Thomas Hardy, novelist, dies. Grants suffrage to women over twenty-one. Resignation of Archbishop of Canterbury over defeat of revised Prayer Book. Serious illness of King George.	1928. German-Irish flyers — Huenefeld, Koehl and Fitzmaurice—make pioneer air flight from Germany to America. Socialist gains in Reichstag elections. Dirigible *Graf Zeppelin* flies from Germany to America and back.	1928. Signs treaty with Yugoslavia. Returns to gold standard. Announces 721,000 ton fleet program to be completed in 1943. Poincare ministry takes new lease of power.
	1929. Airplane *Question Mark* stays in air over six days for new endurance record.	1929. Strives to meet American competition in international trade.	1929. Einstein publishes work intended to unite laws of gravitation and electro-magnetism.	

THE PRESENT TIME—Continued

Italy	Russia	The Americas (except United States)	The Orient	Other Countries
1928. Electoral changes arouse opposition. Returns to gold standard. Gen. Umberto Nobile, in dirigible *Italia*, reaches North Pole. Fascista Grand Council incorporated in the National Government.	1928. Strengthening of Communistic principles. Soviet Congress adopts intensive plans to make peasants Communists.	1928. Pan-American Congress at Havana. Immigration troubles and internal fascism in Argentina. Assassination of President-elect Obregon of Mexico. E. Portes Gil elected Provisional President of Mexico. War between Bolivia and Paraguay is averted.	1928. Chinese Nationalists take Peking and change name to Peip'ing ("northern peace"). Keep capital at Nanking. Gen. Chiang Kai-shek elected President of Government of China. Hirohito crowned Emperor of Japan.	1928. Bela Kun, Hungarian Communist leader, arrested in Vienna and imprisoned. Premier Pilsudski of Poland resigns. New Louvain Library in Belgium dedicated. Ahmet Zogu made King of Albania. Roman alphabet replaces Arabic in Turkey.
	1929. Death of Grard Duke Nicholas.	1929. Canada and United States hold rum-running conference at Ottawa.		1929. Dictatorship in Yugoslavia under King Alexander. Abdication of King Amanullah of Afghanistan.

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indicates that information on abaca will be found on Page 291 in Volume III; also that there is an illustration.

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